









AN ABRIDGED
HISTORY OF ENGLAND

AND

CONDENSED CHRONOLOGY,

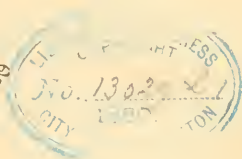
FROM THE TIME OF THE ANCIENT BRITONS TO THE
REIGN OF QUEEN VICTORIA;

WITH

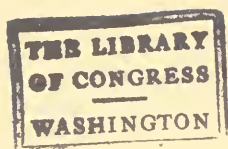
A SYNOPSIS OF ENGLAND IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY,
ITS GOVERNMENT, INSTITUTIONS, &c.

COMPILED BY

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ANCIENT BRITAIN.

HISTORIC LEGENDS AND EARLY INHABITANTS.

OF the history of England before the Roman invasion by Julius Cæsar, B.C. 55, nothing authentic is known. Of the many legendary accounts, one accepted by many writers is that Albion, for so the island was then called, was inhabited by giants, who were subdued by Brutus, a descendant of Æneas the Trojan, renowned as the founder of Rome. Brutus, in this account, gave the island his name, afterward changed to Britannicus, or Britain. It is said that he founded a great city on the river Thames and called it Trynovant, or New Troy, but it was subsequently embellished by King Lud, who called it after himself, Lud's town, now London. Brutus had three sons, to whom, it is said, he gave England, Scotland, and Wales.

There are other stories: of the coming of the Picts, Scots, Norsemen, and Danes; of the wise rule of Belinus, brother of Breinus, who sacked Rome; others still which may be disregarded.

Dismissing these legends, the first certain fact is, that some five hundred years before the Christian era, adventurous mariners from the distant cities of Tyre and Sidon, known under the general name of Phœnicians, used to visit the western part of the island, now called Cornwall, and there procured tin, or metal then esteemed almost as valuable as gold. They did all they could to keep the knowledge of the riches of Britain to them-

selves, but this they could not always do, as people from Gaul and other parts of the mainland also found their way to the "Tin Island," as they called it, traded there, and ultimately established themselves on the coast—at first, by permission of the people; afterward, as they grew more numerous, in spite of them.

The native Britons wore little clothing, generally, the skins of beasts; but, as some defence against the weather, they stained their bodies blue or green, which also served to frighten their enemies. Their chief weapons were hatchets of stone; their arrow-heads were flints.

The Gauls were very different; they had orderly governments, comprising kings, nobles, and priests, as at home. They dwelt in circular houses, cultivated the land, had a coinage, and traded with those of the opposite shore; but what most distinguished them from the natives was, that they were skilled in the art of war, and had weapons of iron and of brass.

Britons and Gauls had in common, however, a terrible system of false religion, taught by the Druids. These priests lived retired in the woods and had unbounded influence over the people, who regarded them as inspired, and they were consequently more powerful than the chiefs.

Such were the people when Julius Cæsar invaded and prepared to subdue Britain, B.C. 55.

THE ROMAN RULE: B.C. 55 TO A.D. 410.

Julius Cæsar had long been engaged in war with the Gauls, and on the 25th day of August, B.C. 55, set sail from Gesoriacum, now Boulogne, with ten thousand men well inured in war. They embarked in about eighty vessels, and were accompanied by several long ships, or men-of-war; these had engines for casting huge darts and heavy stones, and it was by their assistance

that the invaders were successful. They landed at Deal Beach, when the contest at once began.

Having conquered the country and the people having made terms, Cæsar re-embarked and reached the opposite shore the following day.

From that time until the year A.D. 43, Britain was not molested by the Romans, but in that year Claudius undertook its subjugation and sent an army of forty thousand men, under Aulus Plantius, a force too great to be resisted. The emperor soon followed, remaining on the island only sixteen days—sufficient time for its subjugation—then returned to Rome, celebrated his triumph there and took the name of Britannicus. The war, however, was not over, but continued several years, the natives bearing their yoke with sullen submission until A.D. 78, when Agricola received sole command. He then began a series of seven campaigns, which ended in firmly establishing the Roman power.

The Roman army at different times penetrated as far as the Grampian hills, in Scotland, but the northern part of the kingdom was never subdued by the invaders.

Although the Roman rule was sustained in Britain for three hundred and twenty-six years after the recall of Agricola, very few incidents are recorded. During that time the country was governed by an officer styled Legate, or Vicar.

In the year 410 Rome itself fell, was taken by the Goths, but many Romans remained on the island until the year 418, when, it is said, they collected all their treasures, and, hiding a portion in the earth, carried the remainder with them into Gaul.

From this time for more than one hundred and fifty years, the history of Britain is very confused and uncertain. We know the Saxons triumphed over the Britons, but few particulars, further than that after Honorius abandoned Britain, the natives, finding it impossible to defend themselves against the

Picts, called the Saxons to their aid in 419—who assisted them so effectually that they took possession of the country, triumphed over the Britons, and, at last, were the sole possessors of the land.

ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH PEOPLE.

For the fatherland of the English, we must now look far away from England itself.

In the fifth century the one country which we know bore the name of *Angeln*, or *England*, lay within the district now called *Sleswick*, in the heart of the peninsula that parts the Baltic from the German Ocean. On the one side, the Saxons of *Westphalia* held the land, from the *Weser* to the *Rhine*; on the other, the *Eastphalian Saxons* stretched away to the *Elbe*. North, again, lay another tribe, the *Jutes*; but they all belonged to the same *Low German* family. From a union of all of them, the *English people* have sprung.

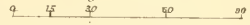
Hengist established the kingdom of *Kent* about the year 450; it comprised the counties now known as *Kent*, *Essex*, *Middlesex*, *Hertford*, and part of *Surrey*. He fixed his royal seat at *Canterbury*, and died there in the year 488. His successful career excited the avidity of other Northern Germans, chiefly composed of three tribes—the *Saxons*, *Angles*, and *Jutes*—who were sometimes called *Saxons*, sometimes *Angles*, all speaking the same language and governed by the same institutions, and they were naturally led by these causes, as well as from common interest, to unite against the ancient inhabitants.

Resistance, though unequal, was still maintained by the *Britons*, who every day became more feeble and seldom free from calamities, until driven into *Cornwall* and *Wales*, where they were protected only by their remote situation or the inaccessible mountains of these regions.

Soon after the landing of *Hengist* in the south, the *Saxons*

ANCIENT ENGLAND

English Miles.



Neumann & Neumann, Lith., 111 Pearl St. N.Y.

settled in Northumbria, but met with obstinate resistance and made little progress in subduing the natives. Their affairs were in so unsettled a condition, that none of their princes for a long time assumed the title of king. At last, in the year 543, Ida, a Saxon prince of great valor, brought over a reinforcement from Saxony, and subdued that part of the country comprising Northumberland, Cumberland, Durham, and the southeast counties of Scotland, and assumed the title of King of Bernicia. About this time, Alla, another Saxon prince, conquered Lancashire and part of Yorkshire, assuming the title of King of Deiri. These two kingdoms were afterward united and known as Northumbria, under Ethelfrid as king.

The next Saxon state, the kingdom of South Saxony, was established in the year 477. Ella, a Saxon chief, brought over an army, landed on the south coast, and proceeded to take possession of the neighboring territory.

The Britons, now armed, did not tamely abandon their possession of the neighboring territory, nor were they expelled until defeated in many battles, when Ealla assumed the title of king, and extended his dominion over Sussex and the greater part of Surrey. He was stopped in his progress to the east by the kingdom of Kent, and on the west by another tribe of Saxons who had taken possession.

A body of Saxons came under leadership of Cerdic and in 495 founded the kingdom of Wessex, comprising the counties of Hants, Dorset, Devon, Wilts, Berks, and the Isle of Wight. Cerdic died in 534, and was succeeded by his son Kenric.

While the Saxons were thus progressing in the south, their countrymen were not inactive in other quarters. In the year 527 a great number of adventurers landed on the east coast, and after many battles established three new kingdoms: Uffa assumed the title King of the East Angles, in the year 575, his kingdom comprising Cambridge, Suffolk, and Norfolk; Creda

established the kingdom of Mercia in 585, extending over the middle counties, from the banks of the Severn to the boundaries of the East Angles and East Sussex; Erkenwan formed the kingdom of East Saxony, or Essex, about the same time, the latter being dismembered from that of Kent, and comprising Essex, Middlesex, and a part of Hertford.

Thus was established, after a violent contest continuing nearly one hundred and fifty years, the Heptarchy, or Seven Saxon Kingdoms in England. The whole southern part of the island, except Wales and Cornwall, had totally changed its inhabitants, language, customs, and institutions. The Heptarchy was maintained for over two hundred years, when the whole was consolidated into one kingdom, by Egbert, A.D. 827.

AN ABRIDGED
HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

THE FIRST ANGLO-SAXON KING TO THE DANISH RULE.

A.D. 827-1017.

Egbert—A.D. 827-837.

EGBERT, styled the great King of the West Saxons, was son of Alkmund, King of Kent, whose descent he traced back through Eata and Eoppa to Inigisil, the brother of the great Ina, and undoubtedly a descendant of Cerdic, who died in the year 534, and he was regarded as the only male descendant of the founder of the royal house of Wessex.

When Brihtric became King of Wessex in 786, Egbert, then very young, or his friends for him, claimed the throne. Brihtric is said to have soon after made an attempt on his life, upon which he took refuge at the court of Offa, the powerful King of Mercia. After a short time, however, he lost Offa's protection on Brihtric marrying a daughter of that king. Egbert then fled to France, where he was received and protected by Charlemagne, in whose armies he served a number of years, and at whose court at Rome he abode until the death of Brihtric, who was poisoned by his wife in the year 800. He was then

recalled, and by the unanimous vote of the Witan appointed to the vacant throne.

At the time of Egbert's accession, the Saxon States in England were reduced to three independent sovereignties: Northumbria; Mercia, which had reduced to subjection Kent, Essex, and East Anglia; Wessex, with which Sussex had become incorporated. Of these three powers, Northumbria was torn by internal dissensions, and for the preservation of its independence was chiefly indebted, probably, to the rivalry between the other two.

The conquests and able rule of Offa, however, had raised Mercia to a decided pre-eminence over Wessex, and at this time the Mercian throne was occupied by Cenwulf, who was well qualified to wield the sceptre of Offa, and who had even extended the territory which he had inherited. The two States were at war when Egbert became king, but a peace was soon concluded between them, and he made no attempt at conquest over any part of Saxon England during the remainder of Cenwulf's life.

Through the first nine years of his reign Egbert seems not to have drawn his sword. Then, in the year 809, he engaged in war against the alien tribes that still remained unsubdued in the west, and it is recorded that between this period and the year 814 he subjugated, or, at least, overrun and reduced to temporary submission, all Cornwall, including Devon, and South Wales; but soon after the death of Cenwulf, in 819, we find him entering upon a new career.

In 823 a dispute about the succession to the Mercian throne raised the East Angles in revolt. Egbert's aid, on being applied for, was readily given to the insurgents, and a great battle took place at Ellendune—supposed to be Wilton—resulting in the complete overthrow of the Mercians. Essex and Kent were then seized by Egbert, or voluntarily submitted to him. He designed to leave the East Angles independent for a time, and did not deem Mercia herself sufficiently weakened to be attacked with effect. A continuation of the dispute about the succession, however, and another revolt of the East Angles, soon produced the state of things for which he waited.

In 827 he marched against Mercia. Wiglaf, the king, fled to the monastery of Croyland, but soon made his submission and was permitted to retain the kingdom, as the vassal or tributary of Egbert, who appears to have taken East Anglia under his immediate government. Without loss of time he now led his army against Northumbria. The king, Eanrad, offered him no resistance, but meeting Egbert at a place called Dore, to the north of the Humber, acknowledged him as Bretwalda. He was the eighth Saxon said to have attained that dignity. The last was the Northumbrian king, Oswio.

Egbert had thus become the actual sovereign of the whole Heptarchy, and in the year 827 assumed the title, KING OF ENGLAND. The word England can be traced, in occasional use, as far back as the year 688, but was for the first time legally recognized by the edict of Egbert.

Peace reigned until 832, when the Danes landed on the island of Sheppey, ravaged the coast, and carried off a rich booty. The following year they disembarked at Charnmouth from a fleet of thirty-five sail, and defeated a force that Egbert sent against them. They landed again, in 835, on the coast of Cornwall, where they formed an alliance with the Britons. Egbert in person encountered their united forces at Hengston Hill, gained a decisive victory, punished the rebels, and drove the invaders from the land.

Egbert was born about the year 775; married Redburga; had issue: Ethelbald, Ethelwulf, who succeeded him, and Athelstan. He died 837, in the sixty-third year of his age and the tenth year of his reign over England, and was succeeded by his second son.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—France: Louis I.; Scotland: Douglas, Alpin.

Ethelwulf—A.D. 837-857.

ETHELWULF, son of Egbert by his queen, Redburga, was born in the year 803. He had neither the vigor nor the abilities of his father, and was better suited to govern a convent than a kingdom, but in consequence of the death of his elder brother, Ethelbald, he ascended the throne on the death of Egbert.

He began his reign by transferring the government of the provinces of Kent, Essex, and Sussex to his eldest son, Athelstan, but retaining supreme authority.

All that has been recorded of the first fourteen or fifteen years of this reign consists almost exclusively of the account of a series of conflicts with the Danes, who now continued, with incessant perseverance, those descents upon the English coasts which they had commenced in the previous reign. In 837 three squadrons of them made attacks at different points, almost at the same time. The following year they landed in great strength in Lincolnshire, and, after defeating the troops sent against them, marched across the country, down to the Thames, ravaging as they went. In 839 three hard battles were fought—at Rochester, Canterbury, and London—besides an action at sea, near Charmouth, in which the English fleet, commanded by Ethelwulf in person, was defeated. For several years after this, however, the Northmen abandoned England, and directed all their efforts against the coast of France; but near the close of the year 850, a body of them landed in the Isle of Thanet, when so ill prepared was Ethelwulf for the attack, that the Danes were enabled to pass the winter in the country. In the spring of 851 they were joined by a large number of their countrymen and the entire force ascended the Thames in a fleet of three hundred and fifty vessels, plundered and burned Canterbury and London, penetrated into Surrey, and were there met by Ethelwulf, at Oakley, with an army he had raised for the purpose. After a long and obstinate battle, the Danes were defeated with great slaughter. They were shortly after beaten in another battle, at Wenbury, in Devonshire, and again, in a sea-fight, near Sandwich, by Athelstan. In consequence of these reverses, the Danes made no further attack on England during the remainder of the reign of Ethelwulf.

In 852, on the death of Athelstan, the government of Kent and the provinces was assigned by Ethelwulf to his second son Ethelbert, he himself retaining the supreme authority, as before. The following year, at the request of Beohred, King of Mercia, he led an army against the Welsh, and marched through their country as far as the Island of Anglesey, compelling them to

acknowledge themselves his subjects. On the termination of this expedition he gave his daughter, Ethelswitha, in marriage to the King of Mercia.

The unsettled state of the country did not prevent Ethelwulf from making a pilgrimage to Rome, whither he carried his youngest and favorite son, Alfred, then only six years old, to have him consecrated and named as his successor. He remained twelve months in the Holy City, in devotional exercises, and displaying great liberality to the church. On his return, his wife Osburga being dead, he tarried a few months in France, and there married Judith, daughter of Charles the Bald, King of the Franks, and brought her with him to England.

In the meantime, however, his son Ethelbald, taking advantage of his father's absence, had entered into a conspiracy for seizing the kingdom, and it is said that the principal minister, Alstan, was his accomplice, supported by the leading nobility of the nation. From this we infer that the attempted revolution was not without some good reason, and although the return of Ethelwulf is said to have prevented the full success of the design, it was substantially carried into effect. It was agreed in a solemn meeting of the Witan that Ethelbald should become King of Wessex, Ethelwulf retaining the supreme power as well as the government of the west of the kingdom.

Tithes were first levied in this reign, an edict for their assessment being one of the last acts of the king.

Ethelwulf married Osburga; by her had issue, five sons: Athelstan, King of Kent; Ethelbald, Ethelbert, Ethelred, and Alfred, who all succeeded to the throne; one daughter, Ethelswitha, who married Beohred, King of Mercia. He died in the year 857, the fifty-fourth year of his age, and the twentieth of his reign. By his will he shared England between his two eldest surviving sons, the West being assigned to Ethelbald, the East to Ethelbert.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Kenneth II.; France: Charles II. (the Bald); Emperors of the West: Louis I., Lothaire, Louis II.

Ethelbald—A.D. 857-860; Ethelbert—A.D. 857-866.

THE kingdom was divided conformably with the will of the late king. Ethelbald ruled Wessex and the West. He was a profligate prince and gave great offence to his people by marrying Judith, his step-mother, but by the advice of Swethen, Bishop of Winchester, he was prevailed upon to have a divorce from her. He reigned only two years, when Ethelbert succeeded to the government of the whole kingdom, whose undivided reign of seven years was worthy of his birth and station.

The country was several times invaded by the Danes during this reign; they sacked Winchester, but were afterward defeated.

Ethelbald was at various times concerned in many conflicts with the Danes, and distinguished himself by great bravery, but otherwise holds no remarkable place in history. He died in the year 860, the twentieth year of his age, the second year of his reign, leaving no issue. Judith, his divorced wife, married Baldwin, Count of Flanders, and ancestor of Matilda, wife of William the Conqueror, and through her of the kings and queens of England.

Ethelbert was a virtuous prince, beloved by all his subjects. He died in the year 866, the twenty-fourth year of his age, the fifth year of his reign. He left a young son, Ethelwald, who, being a minor, was, by Saxon rule, set aside in the succession, in favor of his uncle, Ethelred, fourth son of Ethelwulf.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Kenneth II., Donald II., Constantine II.; France: Charles II.; Emperor of the West: Louis II.

Ethelred I.—A.D. 866-871.

ETHELRED, fourth son of Ethelwulf, was, like his brother the late king, much loved by his subjects, but his reign was a disastrous one. He was chiefly occupied in repelling the incursions of the Danes, who occupied East Anglia, passing thence

into Wessex under command of Bagsecg. They were vigorously met by Ethelred. They pushed on, however, as far up the Thames as Reading, near which town a series of battles were fought: at Englifield, where the Danes were beaten; at Reading, where the fortune of the day was changed; and, subsequently, at the great battle of Ashdown, where the victory of the English was attributed to Alfred, who, being in command of half the army, attacked and defeated the enemy, while his brother was losing the precious moments in prayer for success.

Though the victory of Ashdown was complete, it did not close the war. Almost immediately afterward, we hear of battles at Basing and at Merton, in which the Danes were again successful.

Ethelred died from the effect of a wound received in battle, in the twenty-fifth year of his age, the fifth of his reign, and was succeeded by Alfred, his younger brother.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Constantine II.; France: Charles the Bald; Emperor of the West: Louis II.

Alfred (the Great)—A.D. 871-901.

ALFRED—surnamed the Great—born in Berkshire in the year 848, was the fifth and youngest son of Ethelwulf and his queen Osburga. Before he came to the throne he had made himself well acquainted with the condition of the people over whom he was to rule. He was of weak health, but he led no sedentary life, and excelled in athletic as well as the liberal arts, thus becoming not only a great warrior and statesman, but the most practical improver of the people, extending their knowledge and inciting their industry. He even taught workers of gold and other artificers how best to labor in their crafts. He built houses beyond all the precedents of his ancestors; by his new mechanical inventions, and by all practicable means fitted himself for the duties of government.

When Alfred ascended the throne the country was in a most miserable condition. For a time the Danes withdrew from Wessex and employed their energy in subjugating Mercia. Burhred, who had married Alfred's sister, was driven from the

throne and retired to Rome, to die. A Danish agent, named Cunwulf, was put in his place, and the country put under heavy tribute. Cunwulf in his turn was displaced, and the Danes themselves took possession of much of the country.

For seven years the king had been carrying on a desultory contest with no marked result. He made truce after truce; he exacted oaths; he received hostages. With the exception of his first naval battle, in 875, he appears to have been constantly aiming at a false security by vain negotiations. He had no power, of himself, to conclude peace or make war, without the authority of the Witan. The great peace which was concluded with Guthrum in 878 ran thus:—"This is the peace which Alfred the King and Guthrum the King and the Witan of all the English Nation, and all the people that are in East Anglia, have all ordained," etc.

This year, 878, during midwinter, after Twelfth Night, the Danes stole away to Chippenham, overran the land of the West Saxons, and remained there. Many of the inhabitants were driven beyond the sea, and of the remainder the greater part were subdued. But Alfred could not be found. He had fled: no one knew whither. Where are his Thanes and his prelates? They are not with him. He has retreated to the woods and the fastnesses of the moors. The king relies upon himself alone. He concealed himself for more than a year in the hut of a cowherd; afterward, in the centre of a bog formed by the stagnant waters of the Thone and the Parret, in Somersetshire. At length, in the guise of a harper, he visited the camp of the rebels, discovered their weakness, and at a favorable time collected the principal men of the nation and, raising a small army, attacked the Danes in their weakest point, at Eddington, and completely defeated them. A result of this battle was the treaty of Wedmore; by it East Anglia was surrendered to the Danes, and a line was drawn to separate their kingdom from that of Wessex.

This treaty, although it curtailed the supremacy of Wessex, made the kingdom in fact stronger, and secured a temporary rest for the whole of England. Soon after, Guthrum, the Danish general, was converted to Christianity, and was baptized

by the name of Athelstan, Alfred adopting him as his son. He continued from that time a peaceable subject.

Alfred now directed his attention to civil affairs, built and repaired cities and forts, founded a navy, raised the militia, established schools, compiled a code of laws, and reformed the administration of justice. He was distinguished as a scholar, as well as a patron of learning.

The kingdom was again invaded, in the year 894, by an army of Northmen under Hastings, with a fleet of three hundred ships. They were defeated in several battles, and driven from the country.

Alfred invited from all realms industrious foreigners, to re-people the country which had been so desolated by the Danes, and supplied the defects of his own subjects by engaging many of them in his service. He was considered one of the greatest and wisest of all England's kings. "He was," says Freeman, "a saint without superstition, a scholar without ostentation, a conqueror whose hands were never stained with cruelty, a prince never cast down by adversity, never lifted up to insolence in the day of triumph."

Alfred married Ethelswitha, the daughter of a Mercian earl, in the year 868. By her he had three sons and three daughters. The eldest son, Edmund, died before him, without issue; the second, Edward, succeeded him on the throne; the third, Ethelward, inherited his father's passion for letters, and lived a private life.

Alfred died on October 26, 901, in the fifty-second year of his age, and the thirtieth of his reign.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Constantine II., Eth, Gregory, Donald III.; France: Charles, Louis II., Louis III., Charles the Fat, Endes, Charles III.; Emperors of the West: Louis II., Charles the Bald, Carloman, Charles the Fat.

Edward (the Elder)—A.D. 901-925.

EDWARD, second son of Alfred the Great and his wife Ethelswitha, was born about the year 870; he was called to the throne by the choice of the Witan, and was crowned on Whit-

sunday—one hundred years having elapsed since his great-grandfather Egbert had gained his present territories.

This prince, who equalled his father in military talents, though inferior to him in knowledge, found, on his accession, that his title to the throne was contested. In the case of Alfred, the lineal succession had been set aside; for his elder brother, Ethelred, had left children, and his son, Ethelwold, now disputed the title, and, arming his partisans, took possession of Wimborne, part of the royal domain, and there seemed determined to defend himself; but when the king approached the town with a large army, Ethelwold made his escape into Northumbria, where the Danes chose him as king. A civil war now ensued, which lasted four years: the rebels with him marched through the counties of Gloucester, Oxford, and Wilts. Edward, unable to oppose them, retaliated on the country of the East Angles, but soon thought proper to withdraw his army, loaded with booty, before the approach of the rebels. But the Kentish men, greedy of more spoil, remained behind, in defiance of orders, and were attacked by the East Angles. They resisted most valiantly, but at last were obliged to retire, after slaying a large number of the rebels, including Ethelwold himself. The consequence was the renewal of the acknowledgment of the supremacy of Wessex by Guthrum II. of East Anglia.

With the assistance of his sister, Edward attempted to secure himself from further molestation by the erection of numerous stone castles. These castles, which seem to have been built on a new and better plan than any before erected, became also in many instances the nucleus from which towns sprang; for laws were passed creating them markets, and forbidding bargains to be made without the walls. The towns of Chester, Warwick, Buckingham, Towcester, and Maldon were fortified.

This king gained two victories: at Tetnesford and Maldon, and on the death of Ethelfled, King of Mercia, that country, both Anglian and Danish, submitted to his authority. The Welsh kings swore allegiance to him, and even the kings of Scotland and Strathclyde acknowledged Edward as their "father and lord." He was thus, in fact, master of all England.

Edward married Eadgifu, a shepherd's daughter. By her

he had Athelstan, said to be illegitimate, Edmund, and Edred, who all succeeded to the throne, and three daughters. One, Elfrida, married Charles the Simple, of France; the second, Edgiva, Hugh the Great, Count of Paris; and the third, Elgifa, Otto I., Emperor of Germany.

Edward died in the fifty-fifth year of, his age, the twenty-fourth of his reign, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Athelstan, who, although illegitimate, being of an age and capacity fitted for government, obtained the preference to Edward's younger children, who were too young to rule a nation so much exposed to foreign invasion and domestic troubles.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS. —Scotland: Donald III., Constantine III.; France: Charles III. (the Simple).

Athelstan—A.D. 925-940.

ATHELSTAN, a natural son of Edward the Elder, was born about the year 885. He had no sooner ascended the throne than a league was formed against him. The leader of the conspiracy, one Elfred, a nobleman of considerable power, being seized on suspicion, denied the charge, and in order to free himself from the imputation, offered to swear to his innocence before the Pope, whose person it was supposed contained such superior sanctity, that no one could presume to take a false oath in his presence and hope to escape the vengeance of heaven. The king accepted the condition, and Elfred was conducted to Rome, where he made the oath required before John, who then filled the papal chair. He had no sooner pronounced the fatal words than he fell into convulsions, and died three days after. The king, believing the guilt of the prisoner established, confiscated his estates.

The terror of Athelstan's name had left him the undisputed dominion of the island, with the exception of Northumbria. The Danish chieftain of that district, Sihtric, acknowledged his supremacy, but died in the year 926, and his two sons, Anlaf and Guthfric, assumed the government without the king's consent. They were soon expelled; the former fled to

Ireland, the latter to Scotland, where he was received and protected by Constantine the king. Athelstan demanded that he should be given up, which Constantine promised to do; but, detesting such treachery, advised Guthfric to escape, which he did. Athelstan, resenting Constantine's behavior, entered Scotland with an army and ravaged the country with impunity, reducing the Scots to such distress that the king was content to preserve his crown by making submission and doing homage for it.

Athelstan assisted Louis IV. of France during the usurpation of Rudolph, all of which time he lived at the English court. On the death of the usurper, the states of France sent deputies to Athelstan, who took the oath of allegiance to Louis, and with him returned to France, and when that young king was disturbed by his great vassals, an alliance was entered into between France and England. Historians say that this is the first record in our history of any league between France and England, and of any treaty by which these two kingdoms concerned themselves in each other's welfare.

Athelstan died at Gloucester, October 27, 940, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, and the sixteenth year of his reign. He was never married, and was succeeded by his legitimate brother Edmund.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Constantine III. ; France: Charles III. (the Simple), Louis IV.

Edmund I.—A.D. 940-946.

EDMUND, eldest legitimate son of Edward the Elder and his wife, Eadgifu, and grandson of Alfred the Great, ascended the throne on the 27th day of October, 940. He was born in the year 921. On his accession he met with disturbances from the restless Northumbrians, who neglected no opportunity of breaking into rebellion; but marching suddenly with his forces into their country, he so overawed the rebels that they endeavored to appease him by the most humble submissions. In order to give him the surer pledge of their obedience, they offered to

embrace Christianity, a religion which the English Danes had frequently professed when reduced to difficulties, but which for that reason they regarded as a badge of servitude, and shook off as soon as opportunity offered. Edmund, trusting little to their sincerity in this forced submission, used the precaution of removing the Five-burgers from the towns of Mercia in which they had been allowed to settle, because they instigated the rebellion.

He conquered Cumberland and Galway, and conferred that territory on Malcolm, King of Scotland, on condition that he should do him homage and protect the northern part of England from the incursions of the Danes.

Edmund, though young, was a brave and prudent ruler. His reign, terminated by his violent death, was short. One day, while celebrating a festival in the county of Gloucester, an outlaw whom he had banished presumptuously took a seat among the guests. Edmund, discovering the intruder, ordered his removal. The man resisted, the enraged king rushed at him, seized him by the hair, and dashed him to the ground. At the same instant the outlaw drew a dagger and plunged it into the breast of the ill-fated king, who instantly died. The assassin was cut to pieces on the spot.

Edmund was murdered May 26, 946, in the twenty-fifth year of his age and sixth of his reign. He left two sons, Edwy and Edgar, who were young and incapable of ruling. He was succeeded by his only surviving brother, Edred.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Constantine III., Malcolm I.; France: Louis IV.

Edred—A.D. 946-955.

EDRED, youngest son of Edward the Elder, and his wife Eadgifu, was born in the year 923. He was of feeble health, and of a confiding disposition. His first adviser was the Chancellor Turketul, who after a few years devoted himself to religion, and became Abbot of Croyland, and was succeeded by Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury, a man of great power and influence, who

for thirty years exercised great control over the government. Dunstan became chief director of the public affairs of the country; he was, in the words of one of his biographers, "king and ruler of the king." He was the keeper of the treasury, and most probably director of the wars. During this reign, Northumbria, which had revolted, was subdued; and Edred, having devastated the land, changed its form of government, and reduced it from a kingdom to an earldom. The sickly king styled himself the sovereign of "the fourfold empire of the Anglo-Saxons and Northumbrians, Pagans, and Britons."

From this title we learn that some of the dominions were held under Danish chieftains, who were still unconverted, and were denominated Pagans.

Dunstan was offered the See of Winchester, which he refused, as he was planning a revolution in England, the establishment of monastic rule, and the supremacy of the Papal power. The celibacy of the clergy was the leading principle to be contended for, in making the church Romish instead of National.

Previous to this, the monks were a species of secular priests, who intermingled with the world, and endeavored to make themselves useful. They were employed in the education of the youth of the country, and had the disposal of their own time. They were not subject to any order, had made no vows, and retained the choice, without quitting the convent, of either a married or single life.

Dunstan, now taking advantage of the confidence reposed in him by the king, imported into England a new Order of Benedictine Monks, who much changed the order of ecclesiastical affairs, and excited the most violent commotions. They took on themselves the vow of celibacy, excluding themselves entirely from the world; renounced all claim to liberty, and made a merit of most inviolable chastity. They affected the greatest austerity of life and manners, and were particularly vehement against the dissolute lives of the secular clergy, their rivals.

The latter were numerous and rich, and, possessed of ecclesiastical dignities, defended themselves with vigor, and endeavored to retaliate.

The progress of the monks, which had now become consider-

able, was somewhat retarded by the death of the king. He died at Frome, November 23, 955, in the thirty-second year of his age, and the ninth of his reign, without issue, and was succeeded by his nephew Edwy.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS. — Scotland: Malcolm I., Indulf; France: Louis IV., Lothaire.

Edwy—A.D. 955-958.

EDWY, eldest son of Edmund the First, was born in the year 939. He was surnamed the Fair, and was endowed with a splendid figure, and gave great promise of a happy and prosperous reign. In the destruction of that happy promise, and in his premature death, we have a tragedy which has made the name of Dunstan hateful with all by whom the piteous tale of "Edwy and Elgiva" has been received with undoubting faith.

The coronation of the young king followed quickly his accession. His Witan had taken the oath of allegiance to him, and before the altar he had taken the oath of supremacy. The coronation feast came next. The king sat at the banquet, surrounded by timid friends and suspicious enemies. He had taken the oath that he would hold God's Church and all the Christian people of his realm in true peace. But at that banquet there were ministers of God's Church who bore toward each other the most deadly hostility.

At this coronation feast the king retired early, as was the invariable custom at these Saxon banquets. There was excessive use of wine, and the passions of men were proportionately excited. The assembly murmured, with some reason, at the absence of the king. Dunstan, and Odo, Archbishop of Canterbury, went forth, and, bursting into Edwy's private chamber, found him in the company of Elgiva and her mother Ethelgiva. The abbot seized the youth and forcibly dragged him back to the hall. It has been called an act of sudden passion, but it appears an act of policy. The authority of the abbot was tottering, and he, for this reason, asserted his power before the assembled nobles.

Edwy, though young, found an opportunity for taking re-

venge for this public insult. The following day he questioned Dunstan concerning the administration of the treasury during the reign of his predecessor, and when that minister refused to account to him he accused him of malfeasance in office and banished him the kingdom.

Edwy, unfortunately, at the commencement of his reign, got engaged in a controversy with the monks, whose rage nothing could mitigate, and who pursued his memory with the same unrelenting spirit of vengeance which they exercised against him during his short reign. He had married his cousin Elgiva, a beautiful princess, against the advice of his gravest counsellors, and the remonstrances of his highest ecclesiastics, because she was within the degree of affinity prohibited by the canon law.

As the austerity affected by the monks made them particularly violent on this occasion, Edwy entertained a strong feeling against them, and seemed determined not to second their projects of expelling the secular clergy from all the convents and possessing themselves of those rich establishments. War was therefore declared between the king and the monks; the former soon found reason to repent his provoking such dangerous enemies.

The Dunstan party was not inactive during his banishment; they filled the public mind with panegyrics of his sanctity; they exclaimed against the impiety of the king and queen, and having poisoned the minds of the people, proceeded to acts of violence against the royal authority.

Archbishop Odo sent a party of soldiers into the palace, seized the queen and branded her with a red-hot iron on the face, in order to destroy her beauty, and then sent her by force to Ireland, there to remain in perpetual exile.

Edwy, finding it in vain to resist, was obliged to consent to a divorce, which was pronounced by Odo. A greater calamity still awaited the unhappy Elgiva. After some time, that amiable princess, being partly cured of her wound and the scars somewhat obliterated, returned to England, and was flying to the embraces of the king, whom she still regarded as her husband, when she fell into the hands of a party sent by Odo to intercept her. Nothing but her death could give the archbishop security or satisfy the monks, and the most cruel death was adopted to

satiate their vengeance. She was hamstrung, and expired at Gloucester a few days afterward in the greatest agony.

The English people, blinded with superstition, instead of being shocked with this inhumanity, declared that the punishment of Edwy and his queen was a just judgment for their dissolute contempt for ecclesiastical law. They even went into rebellion against their king, and placed his brother Edgar at their head, a boy fifteen years of age, who was chosen king of the Mercians; but Edwy governed Wessex and Kent.

That it might not be doubted at whose instigation the revolt was undertaken, Dunstan returned to England, and took upon himself the government of Edgar and his party. He was then installed Bishop of Worcester, then of London, and on the death of Odo created Archbishop of Canterbury. He was even canonized by the See of Rome—one of the many saints who disgrace the Romish calendar.

Meanwhile the unhappy Edwy was excommunicated and pursued with unrelenting vengeance. But his death, which happened soon after, freed his enemies from further iniquitude, and gave Edgar peaceable possession of the whole kingdom.

Edwy died October 1, 958, as supposed, by violence. He left no issue.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Indulf; France: Lothaire.

Edgar—A.D. 958-975.

EDGAR, youngest son of Edmund I., and brother of the late king, was born in the year 942.

His sixteen years' reign were years of peace, with the exception of an invasion of Wales, to enforce the payment of tribute. The country, too, was unmolested by the rovers of the North. He soon developed an excellent capacity in the administration of affairs, but he was always under ecclesiastical rule.

His personal conduct was bad, selfish, and sensual. He showed no aversion to war, and made the wisest preparations against invaders; and by a vigor and foresight was enabled, without suffering insults, to indulge in his inclination toward peace, and employ himself in the improvement of his kingdom.

He maintained a body of disciplined troops, and quartered them throughout the country, where they were most needed. He built and equipped a powerful navy, and formed it into squadrons, encircling the land.

The foreign Danes were therefore prevented from invading a country so well protected, and the King of Scotland was forced to pay tribute.

Edgar maintained his authority and preserved the public peace by paying court to Dunstan and the monks, who had placed him upon the throne. He favored all their schemes for deposing the secular clergy from the monasteries, expelling the married ones from the country, calling them thieves and intruders living with concubines; he supplied their places with the new order of Benedictine monks, building fifty new monasteries, and repairing the old ones; and in consequence was a great favorite with all the monkish historians. His character, nevertheless, was bad; he violated every law, human and divine. He broke into a convent in Wilton, and carried off Editha, a nun, by force, committing violence upon her person, and afterward made her his mistress. He was ordered by Dunstan to put her away, and, as a penance, to abstain from wearing his crown for seven years. One day he lodged at the house of a nobleman at Andover, who had a beautiful daughter, and being influenced by passion determined to possess her. As he had no time for courtship, he went directly to her mother, and desired that the young lady should pass the night with him. The mother, a virtuous woman, determined not to allow her daughter to be dishonored, but knowing the violence of the king's temper, thought it better to agree to his demand, and then deceive him. She therefore found a waiting-maid willing to be substituted, who agreed to steal into the king's chamber after all the household had retired to rest, with orders to leave before daybreak, which she attempted to do, but Edgar, being inflamed by his night's enjoyment, refused to allow her to leave. The maid, Elfleda, trusting to her own charms, and to the love she hoped she had inspired in him, readily consented to remain. The return of light discovered the deceit, but he had passed the night so much to his satisfaction, that he expressed no displeasure to

the old lady on account of the deception, and Elfreda became his favorite mistress, and maintained her ascendancy over him until his marriage with Elfrida.

The marriage with that lady—Ethelfleda his wife being dead—was more singular and criminal. He had heard of the great beauty of Elfrida, daughter of Olger, Earl of Devonshire, and sent his favorite, the Earl of Athelwold, to ascertain whether the frequent panegyrics which he heard of her were true. Reflecting on the noble birth of the lady, he resolved, if he found her charms answer to her fame, to obtain possession of her, if by no other means, then, on honorable terms.

Athelwold, having performed his journey, and on an introduction to the lady found the accounts of her came far short of her real merit, was himself captured by her charms and determined to win her. On his return he reported to the king that riches and her high position were the only grounds for the admiration paid her, and that she would be overlooked if of inferior station. When, after a sufficient time, he had by this deceit diverted the king's purpose, he one day turned the conversation on Elfrida, and stated, that though the parentage and fortune had not produced on him, as on others, any illusion as to her beauty, still he thought it would be a suitable match for him, and by her birth and riches compensate for her homeliness of person. If the king gave his consent he would make a proposal on his own behalf.

Edgar, pleased to be able to assist his favorite's fortune, not only consented, but offered to forward his suit by a recommendation to her parents.

Letters were written by the king; Athelwold made the journey, and was accepted, and soon made happy by the marriage. Dreading, however, detection, he employed every pretence for keeping her at a distance from the king; but as royal favorites generally have enemies about a court, some of them informed Edgar of the truth. But before he would execute vengeance on Athelwold's treachery, he resolved to satisfy himself with his own eyes. He told the earl he intended paying him a visit at his castle, and make the acquaintance of his newly married wife. As Athelwold could not refuse the honor,

he craved leave to go before a few hours, and prepare for his reception.

On his arrival at his castle he acknowledged the whole matter to his wife, and prayed that if she had any regard for his life, to conceal as many of her charms as possible by dress, and in her manner to the king.

Elfrida promised to comply, but determined to act otherwise, as she deemed herself little beholding to Athelwold for depriving her of a crown. She therefore appeared before the king, with all the advantages of dress, and with her most engaging manners, and at once excited in his bosom the most passionate love toward her, and the most furious desire for revenge against her husband. He knew, however, how to dissemble, and waited his opportunity.

He requested Athelwold to accompany him into a wood, on pretence of hunting, and waiting his opportunity when they were alone, there stabbed him to death. He immediately returned to the castle, told Elfrida what he had done, and shortly after married her.

An important incident of this reign was the extirpation of wolves out of England. The king took great pains in hunting and pursuing those ravenous animals, and when he found they had taken shelter on the Welsh mountains and forests, changed the Welsh tribute of money to that of three hundred wolves' heads per annum, which induced such diligence in hunting them that they were soon extirpated.

He also gave encouragement to foreigners to visit his court and settle in England; and we are told they imported all the vices of their respective countries, and contributed to corrupt the simple natives.

Edgar married, first, Ethelfleda, the mother of Edward; second, Elfrida, mother of Ethelred. He died July 8, 975, in the thirty-second year of his age and the seventeenth of his reign, and was succeeded by his son Edward.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Indulf, Duffus, Cullen, Kenneth III.; France: Lothaire; Emperors of the West: Otho the Great, Otho II.

Edward (the Martyr)—A.D. 975-979.

EDWARD—surnamed the Martyr—eldest son of Edgar and his first queen Ethelfleda, was born in the year 962, and was consequently in the thirteenth year of his age at his father's death. Ethelred, the son of Elfrida, was only seven. The question of the succession to the vacant throne was immediately raised. A strong party of the nobles demanded that the choice should be determined by election, particularly as Elfrida had formed a powerful faction in favor of her own son Ethelred.

But the title of Edward was supported by many advantages, and by the last will of his father. He was approaching man's estate, and Dunstan espoused his cause. The principal nobility dreaded the imperious temper of Elfrida, and were averse to her son's government, which would enlarge her authority, and probably put her in possession of the regency.

Dunstan, by one of his vigorous movements, quelled the dispute, and, presenting Edward to the assembled Thanes at Winchester, consecrated him on the spot, and the whole kingdom, without further dispute, submitted to him. It was a matter of the greatest importance to Dunstan and the monks to place on the throne a king favorable to their cause; and the married and secular clergy, who had been ejected from livings in the previous reign, regarded Elfrida as their patroness, and supported Ethelred. The strife among the clergy still divided the kingdom, and in order to settle this controversy, several synods were summoned, consisting partly of ecclesiastical members and partly of lay nobility. The monks were generally able to prevail, though contrary to the secret wishes, if not the declared inclination of the leading men of the nation.

In one synod, Dunstan, finding the majority of votes against him, declared he had at that moment received an immediate revelation on behalf of the monks, when the assembly, overawed by the populace, proceeded no further. In another synod a voice proceeded from a crucifix, and informed the assembly that the establishment of the monks was founded on the will of heaven, and could not be opposed without impiety. But the

miracle performed in the third synod was still more alarming to its members, as the floor of the hall where the assembly met sunk of a sudden, and most of the members were either seriously injured or killed by the fall. It was afterward remarked that Dunstan had prevented the king from attending the synod that day, and that the beam under which his own chair stood was the only one that did not give way; but these circumstances, instead of begetting suspicion of connivance, were regarded as proofs of the interposition of divine providence on behalf of the favorites of heaven.

Edward lived four years after his accession. Nothing memorable occurred during his reign; his death alone was tragical. Though his stepmother opposed his succession, and raised a faction against him, he always showed her marks of his regard, and expressed on all occasions the most tender affection toward his brother.

The innocent boy was to be sacrificed as a party victim by those opposed to the monastic domination; and his stepmother, who hated him for standing in the way of her son's elevation, was implicated in the conspiracy.

At Corfe Castle, a royal manor, resided Elfrida and Ethelred. Edward had been hunting at Wareham, and became separated from his attendants, and, being in the neighborhood of the castle, determined to pay his stepmother a visit for rest and refreshment. He thereby presented an opportunity she had long wished for. After his visit, having mounted, a stirrup cup was brought him; he was raising it to his lips, when a servant of Elfrida's approached and stabbed him in the back. He spurred his steed from the fatal porch; he fainted and fell; was dragged in the stirrups, traced by his blood, and when found was dead. The youth and innocence of this prince, and his tragical death, excited such compassion among his people, that they believed miracles to be wrought at his tomb, and they gave him the name of "The Martyr."

In his lifetime he was endowed with a most amiable disposition and great innocence of manner. His intentions were always pure, and he was incapable of entertaining any suspicions against others.

Edward was not married, and died March 18, 978, in the seventeenth year of his age and fourth of his reign, and was succeeded by his half-brother Ethelred.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland : Kenneth III. ; France : Lothaire ; Emperor of the West : Otho III.

Ethelred II.—A.D. 978-1016.

ETHELRED—surnamed the Unready—youngest son of Edgar by his second queen, Elfrida, was born in the year 969. He ascended the throne on the death of his brother, March 18, 978.

Malmesbury says of him that, "Obtaining the kingdom, he occupied, rather than governed it, for thirty-seven years. The career of his life was cruel from the beginning ; in the murder to which he gave his concurrence he was cruel." He was only eleven years old when the murder of his brother took place. Dunstan hated him ; and when, as primate, he placed the crown upon his head, he pronounced this curse : "Even as, by the death of thy brother, thou didst aspire to the kingdom, hear the decree of Heaven. The sin of thy wicked mother, and of her accomplices, shall rest upon thy head, and such evils shall fall upon the English as they have never yet suffered, from the days when they first came into the Isle of Britain, even unto the present time."

As Edward was murdered by the cruel policy of one party, so was Ethelred inducted into an unhappy reign by this vindictive prophecy of the chief of the other party.

The freedom which England had so long enjoyed from the depredations of the Danes was due partly to their employment in their new settlements in Normandy and the north of France, but more especially from the vigor and warlike spirit of the late kings, who preserved the kingdom in a state of defence by sea and by land, and either prevented or repulsed the invaders. But now the reigning king was a minor, and a new generation of men had sprung up in the northern regions who wanted employment that would bring them good returns ; but before they cared to try any important enterprise against England they determined to make a small one by way of trial. They therefore

commenced with seven ships by a descent on Southampton. They ravaged the country, enriched themselves by spoil, and departed without molestation.

In the following year they made a like attempt on the west coast, and met with like success.

The invaders having found affairs in England very different from what they were, encouraged their countrymen to assemble a greater force and to hope for more considerable advantages. In the year 991 they assembled a large fleet and landed on the coast of Essex; they took Ipswich and advanced into the country. They were met by Brithnoth at Maldon, who foiled their efforts to advance for fourteen days, but was in the end beaten and slain.

Ethelred, instead of rousing his people to defend their honor and their homes, listened to the advice of Siricius, Archbishop of Canterbury, who was seconded by many of the degenerate nobles, and purchased their departure from the country by paying them ten thousand pounds of silver, which sum was collected from the people, and was afterward permanently established under the name of Danegeld. This shameful expedient was attended with the success which might be expected, as the Danes, the following year, appeared off the eastern coast in the hopes of subduing a people who defended themselves with their money, which invited assailants, instead of their arms, which repelled them.

The English, sensible of their folly, fitted out a fleet able to give battle to the enemy, but owing to the treachery of Alfrie, Duke of Mercia, its commander, who deserted to the enemy, they were disappointed in their efforts. Ethelred, enraged at the duke's perfidy, seized his son Alfgar and ordered his eyes to be put out.

The Northmen, now well acquainted with the defenceless condition of England, made a powerful descent upon her shores in the year 993, under the command of Sweyn, King of Denmark, and Olaf, King of Norway. They sailed up the Humber and spread destruction on both sides that river. A powerful army was assembled to oppose them, and a general engagement followed; but the English were deserted in the battle by their

three principal leaders, men of the Danish race, Frena, Frithegist, and Godwin.

Encouraged by this success, the invaders ventured to attack the centre of the kingdom, and entering the Thames with ninety-four ships, laid seige to London, and threatened it with total destruction, but the citizens made a bold defence and repulsed them with great loss. In order to revenge themselves, they laid waste Essex, Sussex, and Hampshire, and, having obtained horses, were spreading devastation throughout the country, when their forbearance was again purchased by the payment of sixteen thousand pounds of silver, on receipt of which they left the kingdom. Those incursions were continued in a less degree until the year 998, when they caused great devastation, and again in 1001 a further sum of twenty-four thousand pounds of silver was paid, and they only left because they received greater inducements, being invited by their countryman, the Duke of Normandy, to assist him against Robert, King of France.

Ethelred and his advisers then determined to rid themselves of all Danes found in the country by a general massacre. Secret orders were sent out to every town and county, and on November 13, 1002, the festival of St. Brice, multitudes of every age and sex were mercilessly butchered. Even Grinilda, sister to the King of Denmark, who had married Earl Parling and had embraced Christianity, was put to death.

Sweyn, King of Denmark, who only wanted a pretence to invade England, soon appeared on the coast with a powerful army to take full revenge for the slaughter of his countrymen, and from that time gave the country no rest, devastating from Exeter to the heart of Wiltshire, burning cities and villages. The English made vigorous resistance, but all their efforts were frustrated by the treachery of the generals in command, and famine, owing to a bad season and failure of the crops, added to the miseries of the people. The king had again to submit to the infamy of purchasing a precarious peace from the enemy by the payment of thirty thousand pounds.

In the year 1013 Sweyn openly declared his intention of conquering England. He landed at Gainsborough, and marched

triumphantly to the walls of London. Repulsed from the capital, he marched to Bath, where he was proclaimed King of England and was recognized by the Thanes of Wessex, Mercia, and Northumbria.

The imbecile Ethelred was little able to repair the misfortunes of the country; the treachery of Alfrie, Edric, and others of the leading nobility, frustrated every plan for future defence; the navy became disconcerted, discouraged, and divided, and was at last scattered and had to take refuge. It is impossible to relate particularly all the miseries to which the English were thenceforth exposed. We hear of nothing but sacking and burning towns, and devastation of the open country, the appearance of the enemy in every quarter of the kingdom, and their diligence in discovering any corner which had not been ransacked previously.

The only expedient they could find was to buy a new peace from the Danes, by the payment of forty-eight thousand pounds, but which did not bring them the repose which they expected, for Thurkill, who for three years had been carrying on a predatory war on his own account, levied a new contribution of eight thousand pounds on the county of Kent alone, and murdered the Archbishop of Canterbury.

Ethelred, equally afraid of the violence of the enemy and the treachery of his own people, fled into Normandy, whither he had previously sent his queen, Emma, and his two sons, Alfred and Edmund. Richard, Duke of Normandy, received his unhappy guests with a generosity that does honor to his memory. Ethelred had not been long in Normandy when he heard of the death of Sweyn, who expired at Gainsborough before he had time to establish himself in his newly acquired dominions.

The English prelates and nobility, taking advantage of this event, sent over a deputation to Normandy, inviting Ethelred to return, and expressing a desire to be again governed by a native prince, intimating their hopes, that being now tutored by experience, he would avoid those errors which had been attended with such misfortunes to himself and people. But the misconduct of Ethelred was incurable, and on resuming the government, he developed the same incapacity, indolence, cow-

ardice, and credulity which had so often exposed him to the insults of his enemies.

His son-in-law, Edric, notwithstanding his treasons, retained much influence over him, and instilled into his mind jealousy against Siegfort and Morcar, two of the chief nobility of Mercia. He allured them into his house and there murdered them, and Ethelred participated in the infamy by confiscating their estates, and thrusting the widow of Siegfort into a convent. On a visit which was paid her by Prince Edmund, the king's eldest son, she inspired him with so violent an affection, that he released her from the convent and soon after married her.

Meantime the English found in Canute, the son and successor of Sweyn, an enemy no less terrible than the prince from whom death had so lately delivered them. He ravaged the eastern coast with fury, but soon had to make a voyage to Denmark on urgent affairs there; but after a time returned and continued his depredations on the southern coast. He attacked the counties of Dorset, Wilts, and Somerset, where an army was assembled under Prince Edmund and Duke Edric. The latter continued his perfidious machinations, and failing to get Edmund in his power, deserted to the enemy.

Edmund was not disconcerted, but assembling all the force of England, was in a condition to give battle. The king remained in London, pretending sickness, but really fearing his people would give him into the hands of the enemy to buy their peace, while the army was calling aloud for their sovereign to march at their head against the Danes.

Edmund, deprived of regular supplies, retired to London, determined there to maintain to the last the small remains of English liberty.

He there found everything in confusion by the death of the king, who had expired on April 23, 1016, in the forty-seventh year of his age, and the thirty-eighth of his reign. Ethelred married, first, Ethelreda, by whom he had Edmund and Edwy; second, Emma, sister of Richard, Duke of Normandy, by whom he had Alfred and Edward, who were sent to Normandy.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Kenneth III., Constantine IV., Grime, Malcolm II.; France: Lothaire, Louis V.,

Hugh Capet, Robert the Pious; Emperors of the West: Otho III., Henry II.

Edmund II. (Ironsides)—A.D. 1016.

EDMUND—surnamed Ironsides, from his sturdy valor—was the eldest son of Ethelred by his first queen, Ethelreda, and was born November 30, 996.

He possessed courage and ability. Even before his accession he was recognized as the champion of the English cause against the Danes. On the death of Ethelred, the citizens of London proclaimed Edmund king, while a council sitting at Southampton, which had previously decreed that every Danish king should be an outlaw, took the oaths to Canute. There was instant preparations for war on both sides. Canute had a large fleet in the Thames, and immediately besieged London. Edmund marched into Wessex, and was there accepted as king. He raised an army, and finding that disaffection had crept in among the nobility and the prelates, thought the best expedient for stopping the further progress of these fatal evils was to lead his army instantly into the field, and to employ them against the common enemy. He raised the siege of London; battle after battle ensued, and after meeting with some success at Gillingham, he prepared himself to decide, in one general engagement, the fate of his crown, and would have succeeded but for the traitors who had ruined his father.

Edmund met the enemy at Scoerston, in Gloucestershire, commanded by Canute and Duke Edric. Fortune, in the beginning of the day, declared for him, but Edric, having cut off the head of one Osmer, whose countenance resembled Edmund's, fixed it on a spear, and carried it through the ranks in triumph, calling aloud to the English that "it was time to fly: for, behold! the head of your sovereign." And though Edmund, observing the consternation of his troops, took off his helmet and showed himself to them, the utmost he could gain by his activity and valor was to leave the battle undecided.

Edric now took a surer method to ruin him, by pretending to join his side, and as Edmund knew his power, and probably

knew no other of the chief nobility in whom he could repose more confidence, was obliged, notwithstanding his repeated perfidy, to give him a considerable command in the army.

A battle was soon after fought at Ossington in Essex, where Edric, deserting to the enemy in the beginning of the day, occasioned the total defeat of the English, followed by a great slaughter among the nobility. The indefatigable Edmund, however, had still resources. Assembling a new army at Gloucester, he was again in a position to dispute the field, but the English and Danish nobility, equally harassed with these convulsions, obliged their kings to compromise, and divide the kingdom by treaty between them.

Canute reserved to himself the northern division, consisting of Mercia, East Anglia, and Northumbria, which he had entirely subdued. The southern parts were left to Edmund, who only survived the treaty about a month. He was murdered at Oxford by two of his chamberlains, accomplices of Edric, who by that means made way for Canute to the crown of all England.

Edmund married Algetha, widow of Siegfart, a noble of Mercia, by whom he had two sons, Edward and Edmund, but neither succeeded to the throne. He died November 30, 1016, after a reign of seven months, in the twenty-first year of his age.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Malcolm II.; France: Robert the Pious; Emperor of the West: Henry II.



THE DANISH RULE.

A.D. 1016 - 1041.

At the decline of the Roman Empire, the Danes, Swedes, and Norwegians were generally known as Normans, afterward as Scandinavians, and they began to make themselves known to and dreaded by the more southern nations. Denmark was then divided into a number of petty states, inhabited by a fierce and warlike people whose principal occupation was piracy. Gorm the Old, grandson of Sigurd Snake Eye, collected the several provinces into one aggregate body and formed the kingdom of Denmark in 882, called after Den, the first ruler of a province before the coming of our Saviour, and *mark*, a place of settlement. A few years before his accession to the throne the promulgation of Christianity was commenced, but met with great opposition from the warlike disposition and rude manners of the people and the persecution of the king. Harold, his son, succeeded him in the year 991, and was baptized and became a Christian, which excited the resentment of his pagan subjects, and they formed a rebellion against him, which was headed by his own son Sweyn, who aspired to his father's throne. The king's army was defeated, and the king himself assassinated by

the orders of Sweyn, by one Palnatoke, while he was walking in a wood, and Sweyn, generally called Split-Beard, from the manner of wearing his beard, ascended the throne.

Canute—A.D. 1016-1035.

CANUTE, son of Sweyn, King of Denmark, grandson of Thyra, granddaughter of Alfred the Great, was born in Denmark in 994.

He was now sole king of England, and he called upon the Witan to annul the division of the kingdom by declaring that Edmund had reserved no right of succession, and that he had appointed him guardian of his children. This guardianship consisted in his outlawing them. He sent the two young princes, Edward and Edmund, to the King of Sweden, with instructions to free him, by their death, from all further anxiety. That monarch was too generous to comply with this request, but, being afraid of a quarrel by protecting them, he sent them to Solomon, King of Hungary, to be educated at his court. Edward was afterward married to the king's sister, but he dying without issue, Solomon gave his sister-in-law, Agitha, niece of the Emperor Henry II., in marriage to Edmund, the younger brother, and she bore him Edgar Atheling, Margaret, afterward Queen of Scotland, and Christiana. Edwy, King Edmund's brother, was slain by Edric, by command of Canute. After the murder of Edwy, there were still two claimants to the throne, Edward and Alfred, the sons of Ethelred by his second wife, Emma of Normandy. Their rights were asserted by their uncle, Richard, Duke of Normandy, but Canute settled that dispute by marrying their mother.

The English, though they disapproved of the marriage, were pleased to find at court a sovereign to whom they had become accustomed, and thus Canute, besides securing the friendship of Normandy, acquired, by the same means, the confidence of his subjects. He found himself obliged to gratify his chief nobility with high appointments, and to load his people with heavy taxes to reward his Danish followers. He sent back to Denmark as many as he could safely spare. He made no distinc-

tions between Danes and English in the dispensing of justice, and took care to protect the lives and property of all his subjects alike. Having settled his power in England beyond all danger of revolution, he made a voyage to Denmark in order to resist an attack made by the King of Sweden against that country, and carried along with him a large body of English troops under command of Earl Godwin, who did the king good service and gained him a victory over the Swedes, for which Canute gave him his daughter in marriage.

On his return from Denmark he summoned Malcolm, King of Scotland, to acknowledge himself a vassal for Cumberland, and do homage to the crown of England; but Malcolm refused. Canute was not of a temper to bear this insult, and Malcolm soon found that the sceptre was in very different hands from those of the feeble and indolent Ethelred. Upon Canute appearing on the frontier with a formidable army, Malcolm agreed that his grandson and heir, Duncan, whom he put in possession of Cumberland, should make the submissions required, and that the heirs of Scotland should ever after acknowledge themselves vassals to the crown of England for that province.

Canute's absence from Denmark, and his bestowal of many dignities there on his English subjects, made him unpopular in that kingdom. To appease this discontent in the year 1026 he left his son Hardicanute, only ten years of age, behind him as viceroy, under charge of his brother-in-law Ulf.

In this year he made a pilgrimage to Rome, and was received with great consideration by Pope John XIX., and also by the Emperor Conrad II., who gave up to him all the country north of the Eider. He returned from Rome to Denmark in the year 1028, and from thence published a letter "To all the nations of the English," one passage of which reads: "And now, be it known to you all, that I have dedicated my life to God, to govern my kingdom with justice, and to observe the right in all things. If, in the time that is past, and in the violence and carelessness of youth, I have violated justice, it is my intention, by the help of God, to make full compensation. Therefore I beg and command those to whom I have entrusted the government, as they wish to preserve my good will, and save their own

souls, to do no injustice either to poor or rich. Let those who are noble, and those who are not, equally obtain their rights according to the laws, from which no deviation will be allowed, either from fear of me or through favor to the powerful, or for the purpose of supplying my treasury. I want no money raised by injustice."

He then made an expedition into Norway, expelled Olaf, and restored Haco, who swore allegiance to him. In 1029 he returned to England.

In 1031 Canute was acknowledged King of Norway, and he made claim to the throne of Sweden. On his return to England he allowed Hardicanute to share the Danish crown with him. He completed a code of laws, still extant, in which he denounced those who kept up the pagan rites and superstitions, and forbade the sending Christian slaves out of the country for sale.

Canute, the most powerful monarch of his time, sovereign of England, Denmark, and Norway, could not fail meeting with adulation from his courtiers. Some of his flatterers, breaking out one day in adulation of his grandeur, exclaimed that everything was possible with him; upon which, it is said, the king ordered his chair to be set on the seashore while the tide was rising, and as the waters approached he ordered them to retire, and to obey the voice of him who was lord of the ocean. He feigned to sit some time, as if in expectation of their submission, but when the sea still advanced and washed his feet with its waves, he turned to his courtiers and said that every creature in the universe was feeble and impotent, and that power was with One Being alone, and in whose hands were all the elements, who only could say to the ocean, "Thus far shalt thou go, and no farther," and would level with a nod the most towering piles of human pride and ambition.

When Canute ceased to be an enemy of England, he became a real friend; his power was too strong to be disputed, and he therefore wielded it with moderation after the contest for supremacy was fairly over. He was an unmitigated despot in his own half Christian lands, but he adapted his English rule to the higher civilization of his most important kingdom.

Canute died November 12, 1035, in the forty-first year

of his age, and the eighteenth of his reign. He married first Alfgiva, daughter of the Earl of Northampton, whom he put away in order to marry Emma, widow of Ethelred II. He had issue three sons, Sweyn, Harold, and Hardicanute, and one daughter, and was succeeded by Harold.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Malcolm II., Duncan I.; France: Robert the Pious, Henry I.; Emperors of the West: Henry II., Conrad.

Harold I. (Harefoot)—A.D. 1035–1039.

HAROLD, surnamed Harefoot from his swiftness in running, was the second son of Canute by Alfgiva, and was born in the year 1014.

At the time of Canute's death, of all the possible claimants to the crown of England, Harold was the only one in the country; the two sons of Edmund Ironsides were in Hungary. Ethelred's two sons were in Normandy, and Hardicanute in Denmark.

Although Canute, in his treaty with Richard, Duke of Normandy, stipulated that his children by Queen Emma should succeed to the crown of England, he had either considered himself released from that engagement by the death of Duke Richard, or dangerous to leave an unsettled and newly conquered kingdom in the hands of one so young as Hardicanute. He therefore by will appointed Harold his successor. This prince, besides being on the spot, was favored by all the Danes, and was in possession of his father's treasury, while Hardicanute was favored by the English, and by Earl Godwin, the most powerful nobleman in the kingdom. Affairs were likely to terminate in a civil war, when, by the interposition of a Witan held at Oxford, composed of the principal nobility of both parties, it was decided that Mercia and Northumberland should be assigned to Harold, whilst Wessex should be held by Emma as Regent for her son Hardicanute, who remained in his Scandinavian kingdom. There was a strong party in Wessex who would have preferred the sons of their old Saxon king Ethelred.

Richard, Duke of Normandy, being dead, and succeeded by his son, a minor, the two English princes, finding no longer

protection in that country, gladly embraced the opportunity of paying a visit to their mother, Queen Emma, who seemed to be placed in much power in Wessex, and then residing in Winchester.

Edward was the first to arrive, and brought a few Norman soldiers with him, who were hateful to the people. Alfred, with a few followers, landed in Kent and proceeded to Canterbury, where he was gladly received by the people. Ethelnoth, the archbishop, welcomed the exile, for Harold, who had claimed to be supreme king over all England, was leading an infamous life, and the archbishop had refused to consecrate him.

In the meantime Earl Godwin had been gained over by the arts of Harold, by promising to marry the earl's daughter, and they laid a plot to murder the two young princes. Alfred was therefore invited by Harold to visit him in London, with many professions of friendship, and Godwin conducted him on the way there. They arrived at Guildford, and in the night the young prince was seized, his eyes were put out, and he was afterward murdered.

Edward and his mother, on hearing of the tragedy, and fearing a similar fate, fled to Bruges, and Harold was proclaimed king of all England, and took possession, without meeting any resistance, of the dominions assigned to his brother, and seized the estate of his father's widow. This is the only memorable action performed during his reign. His character was bad, and his only accomplishment that of agility, by which he acquired the name of Harefoot.

Harold was never married, and died on the 14th of April, 1039, in the twenty-fifth year of his age and fourth of his reign, and was succeeded by his half-brother, Hardekanute, who had his body disinterred from Westminster Abbey, and cast into the river Thames, but it was recovered by a fisherman, and probably buried in a Danish cemetery.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Duncan I.; France: Henry I.; Emperors of the West: Conrad II., Henry III.

Hardicanute—A.D. 1039-1041.

HARDICANUTE, youngest son of Canute by his queen Emma, widow of Ethelred, was born in the year 1016.

He was for the past three years King of Denmark, and had not abandoned his pretensions to the kingdom of England. He was preparing a fleet of sixty ships on pretence of paying a visit to his mother, the queen-dowager, in Flanders, but really for a descent on England, when he heard of King Harold's death. He immediately set forth for London, where he was received in triumph, and was proclaimed king without opposition. His first act on taking charge of the government gave his subjects a bad opinion of his future conduct. Being enraged at Harold's cruel treatment of his brother Alfred, and with a desire of vengeance, he ordered his body to be thrown into the Thames. Godwin, equally servile and insolent, and having sworn to his innocence in respect to the murder, submitted to be his instrument, hoping, by his displaying rage against Harold's memory, to justify himself with the king.

Edward being invited to England by Hardicanute, preferred charges against Godwin for the murder of his brother, and demanded justice. Godwin, in order to appease the king, made him a present of a magnificent galley, rowed by fourscore men, armed and clothed in a sumptuous manner. Hardicanute, pleased with such splendor, soon forgot his brother's murder.

He quickly lost the affection of the nation by his misconduct, and particularly by his renewing the imposition of the Dane-geld, and obliging the nation to pay a large sum of money to the fleet which brought him from Denmark. The discontent ran high in many places. In Worcester the populace rose, and put to death two of the collectors. The king, enraged, swore vengeance against the city and ordered three noblemen to execute his menaces with the greatest rigor. They set fire to the city, and delivered it to the soldiers for plunder, but they saved the lives of the inhabitants, whom they confined on a small island, until they could appease the king and obtain his pardon.

Hardicanute suffered his mother and Earl Godwin to rule the kingdom, while he abandoned himself to feasts and carousals.

He was surrounded with Danish flatterers and boon companions. His followers were insolent to the Saxon race, and their sociality was more injurious than their insults.

The Saxons were addicted to intemperance; yet the example of Hardicanute and his courtiers plunged them still deeper into sensuality. Hardicanute, the last of the Danish kings, soon made an end of his feasts and dominion. At a great marriage banquet, at the house of Clapa, one of his Thanes, the king stood up, at a late hour of the night, to pledge the company, and, dropping senseless, was carried to his deathbed, after having reigned a little less than two years. He died on the 8th of June, 1041, in the twenty-fifth year of his age, was never married, and was succeeded by his half-brother Edward.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Duncan I., Macbeth; France: Henry I.; Emperor of the West: Henry III.

THE ANGLO-SAXON RULE RESTORED.

Edward (the Confessor)—A.D. 1041–1066.

EDWARD—surnamed the Confessor—was the youngest son of King Ethelred II., and his queen Emma of Normandy, and was born in 1004.

He was fortunately at court on the death of his half-brother Hardicanute. Though the descendants of Edmund Ironsides were the true heirs of the Saxon family, yet their absence in so remote a country as Hungary appeared a sufficient reason for their exclusion to a people like the English, so little accustomed to observe a regular order in the succession of their kings. Delays might be dangerous, and the present opportunity must be hastily embraced, as the Danes, without a leader and without concert, were only anxious for their safety.

The English nation, now composed of Anglo-Saxons and Danes, had been under direct foreign domination for a quarter of a century. Under the weak government of Ethelred for thirty-seven years, the Saxons had sustained an unequal conflict with their plundering and tribute-exacting enemy. All the glories of the race of Cerdic had vanished. The kingdom

had passed through a long period of intestine war, but there was still a people. There was a people, with the memories of Alfred, the first Edward, and Athelstan, still preserved in their national songs and traditions. The last of the oppressing race was gone. The lineal descendant of the Saxon race was amongst them.

Edward, the son of Ethelred, had been brought up an exile with the relations of his mother. He had no vigor of character, and had received the education of a monk, rather than that of the descendant of a long line of kings; he was familiar with other customs, and with another language than that belonging to his race. In his mind the great idea of nationality had but little place. But he was the one left in whom the Saxons could cherish the sacred feelings of a legitimate descent, which gave to the kings the attribute of blood—that attribute which, in the eyes of the people, was more important than the talent and courage of any claimant who was not of the stock of those sons of Woden who, five hundred years before, had led the blue-eyed myriads to conquest. There was a man in England of great ability, of almost supreme power, who had that intense feeling of nationality which would make the Saxon race again predominant, and in that predominance would absorb all minor differences which separated the Danish settlers from the Saxons. That man was Earl Godwin. He saw, which was not difficult to discover, that on the opposite shores there had grown up a nation that would be a more formidable enemy to England than any of the Scandinavian people. He knew that the conquest of England had long been the secret aspiration of the Normans.

The descendants of Rollo, planted in a rich soil, cultivating arts in which England was inferior, possessing a more refined taste, of indomitable courage amidst their refinements, dreaded by the French kings, whose sovereignty they despised, the conquerors of Sicily, the heirs of the courage and the ambition of the old sea-kings—these were the men whom England had now to dread. Was Godwin powerful enough to be the leader of his country? The time was not come. He put Edward on the throne, his only stipulation being that the king should promise to marry his daughter Editha. Having received this promise, he summoned a general council of the great nobles at

Gillingham, and prepared every measure for securing the succession for Edward. The English were unanimous in their decision, and the Danes divided, so Edward was crowned king with every demonstration of duty and affection.

The triumph of the English was at first attended with some insult and violence to the Danes, but the king, by his mildness of character, soon reconciled them to his administration, and the distinction between the two nations soon disappeared.

The Danes were interspersed with the English in most of the provinces. They spoke nearly the same language, and differed little in manners and laws. Domestic troubles in Denmark prevented any powerful invasion, and the Norman conquest, which followed soon after, reduced both nations to equal subjection, so there is no mention in history of any further differences between them.

The king lived on indifferent terms with his mother, and showed her some severity, accusing her of neglecting him and his brother during their adversity, and her always giving preference to her children by the second marriage with Canute. The same reasons made her unpopular in England. He confined her during the remainder of her life in a nunnery at Winchester, and stripped her of all her fortune.

The kingdom was now at peace. There was no foreign power to disturb the rest of the king. The fierce contests about ecclesiastical discipline had passed away, and Edward hunted and hawked in his forest at Bernwood. The gentle king was also a healer of the sick and a restorer of sight. It was he who first used the healing benediction, which he left to succeeding heirs, and was known as the cure for the king's evil for many subsequent reigns.

When Edward became possessed of the power and riches that belonged to the crown of fertile England, the Normans crowded round him to share the abundance of his treasury. They came to fill the great office of his household; to be the leaders of his troops; to take command of his fortresses; to be his spiritual directors; to have the richest abbeys and the most honored bishoprics.

The seal of wax which Edward was the first to affix to his

charters, instead of the mark of the cross of the Anglo-Saxon kings, was an offence against the nationality of England. In the palace where Editha was queen, her father and brothers spoke their country's language, and wore their country's long mantle, whilst Edward gathered round him the short-cloaked Normans, and bade his subjects address their petitions to his clerks, who only heard those who could speak the Norman tongue. The Norman favorites ridiculed the Saxon lords, and the Saxon lords looked for a day of vengeance upon the Norman favorites.

Ulf and William, two Normans who had formerly been the king's chaplains, were created bishops, and Robert, another Norman, was promoted to the Arch See of Canterbury, which excited the jealousy of the English, particularly the Earl Godwin, who possessed great influence and large possessions, and whose abilities and great ambition rendered him dangerous, and his haughty temper made him often forget the respect due to his king.

Edward's animosity against him was grounded on personal, as well as political considerations, on recent as well as former injuries. The king's marriage to Editha, Godwin's daughter, was a fresh source of enmity between them. Edward's hatred for the father was transferred to the daughter, and, although she possessed many amiable qualities and accomplishments, could never acquire her husband's confidence or love, and it was said he would never allow her to share his bed; and such was the absurd admiration paid to inviolable chastity in those days, that he acquired the surname of the "Confessor."

The most popular pretence on which Godwin could ground his disaffection to the king and his administration, was to complain of the influence of the Normans in the government; and a declared rupture arose between him and those favorites. Some of them were afterward attacked, and Eustace, the Count of Boulogne, was killed. Edward, touched in so sensitive a point, saw the necessity of exerting his royal authority, and he threatened Godwin, if he persisted in his disloyalty, he would make him feel the utmost effects of his resentment.

Godwin, perceiving a rupture to be inevitable, and pleased to

embark in a cause where it was likely he would be supported by his countrymen, made preparations for an attack upon the king, under pretence of repressing some disturbances in Wales. He secretly assembled a large army and was approaching the king, who resided, without any military force or suspicion, at Gloucester. Edward applied for protection to the Dukes of Mercia and Northumbria, who, jealous of Godwin's greatness, as well as mindful of their duty to the crown, engaged to defend the king in his extremity. They hastened to him with all the followers that they could assemble; and finding the danger greater than they expected, issued orders for the raising of all the forces available in their respective provinces.

Godwin, in the meantime, thought he had the king entirely in his power, but by delay lost the opportunity of rendering himself master of the government.

Edward's army was now considerable. He took the field and marched on London, where he summoned a great council to judge of the rebellion of Godwin and his sons.

These noblemen at first pretended they were willing to stand their trial, but having in vain endeavored to make their adherents persist in rebellion, fled to Flanders, and their estates were all confiscated.

In the year 1053, Godwin, by the assistance of the Count of Flanders, fitted out an expedition manned with his followers and freebooters of all nations, put to sea, and attempted a descent on Sandwich, but the king, being previously informed of it, met him with a superior fleet, and he had to return to Flanders discomfited. But, unfortunately for Edward, he allowed his fleet to disband, while Godwin kept his in readiness, and at a proper time again put to sea, landed at the Isle of Wight, where he was joined by his son Harold, who had collected a force in Ireland.

He was now master of the sea, and entering every port on the southern coast, seized all the ships, and summoned all his old followers to assist him in procuring justice for himself and family. Reinforced by large numbers, he entered the Thames, and, appearing before London, threw everything into confusion.

The king alone was resolute; but the interposition of the

English nobility, many of whom favored Godwin, made Edward hearken to the terms of accommodation, and the feigned humility of the earl paved the way for a settlement. It was stipulated that he should give hostages for his good behavior, and they were sent to Normandy for safe-keeping.

Godwin's death happened soon after, while he was sitting at the king's table. He was succeeded in the government of Wessex, Sussex, and Kent, and in the office of Great Steward of the Household by his son Harold, a man of equal ambition, but who had acquired the good-will of the king.

Edward was now worn out with cares and infirmities, and having no issue, began to think of appointing a successor to the crown. He sent a deputation to Hungary to invite over his nephew Edward, son of his elder brother Edmund, the only heir in the Saxon line. That prince, whose succession to the crown would have been easy and undisputed, came to England with his children, Edgar, surnamed Atheling, Margaret, and Christiana; but his death, which happened a few days after his arrival, threw the king into new difficulties. He saw that the great power and ambition of Harold had tempted him to think of obtaining possession of the throne on the first opportunity, and that Edgar, on account of his youth and inexperience, was unfit to oppose so popular a rival. In this uncertainty he secretly cast his eyes toward his kinsman, William Duke of Normandy, as the only one whose power and reputation could support any decision he might make in his favor to the exclusion of Harold and his family.

Harold, in the meantime, continued increasing his popularity and establishing his power, preparing the way for his future advancement; but there was still an obstacle which it was necessary to overcome, namely, the return of the hostages sent to Normandy for Godwin's good behavior. Amongst them were a son and a grandson of the late earl, and Harold was anxious for their return before he endangered their lives by any act of his. He therefore represented to Edward his great loyalty to him, and the little necessity of detaining longer hostages who had been required when civil strife existed. His great power over Edward soon extorted the king's consent to their release, and

he immediately started with a numerous retinue for that purpose.

On the voyage he was shipwrecked on the coast and taken prisoner by the Count of Ponthieu, who demanded a ransom, but he was liberated through the influence of the Duke of Normandy, and on arrival at his court was informed by the duke of his pretensions to the English throne, and of the will made by Edward in his favor. He promised Harold every advancement under his rule. Harold was surprised at this declaration, but being sensible that he would never recover his liberty, much less that of his brother and nephew if he refused, took an oath to support William's pretensions to the crown. He was therefore allowed to return with the hostages to England.

Fortune about this time assisted him in his popularity with the English, by his suppression of an insurrection in Wales, and afterward of one in Northumbria, which enabled him openly to aspire to the succession. He insisted that there was no one so capable of occupying the throne, from his long experience and known courage, and being a native of the kingdom, would secure it against the domination of all foreigners. Edward, broken with age, saw difficulties too great for him, and took but feeble and irresolute steps for securing the succession to the Duke of Normandy.

While he continued in this uncertainty, he was attacked by a fatal sickness, which brought him to his grave. He died on the 5th of January, 1066, in the sixty-second year of his age and the twenty-fifth of his reign. He married Editha, the daughter of Earl Godwin. No issue. He was the last of the royal line of Saxon kings, and was honored as a saint in the Roman Catholic Church. He was succeeded by Harold, son of Earl Godwin.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Macbeth, Malcolm III.; France: Henry I., Philip I.; Emperors of the West: Henry III., Henry IV.

Harold II.—A.D. 1066.

HAROLD, son of Earl Godwin and his wife Gytha, a Danish princess, and consequently not of the royal line of England, was the last sovereign of the Anglo-Saxon race. He had so pre-

pared matters before Edward's death, that his succession to the throne was attended with little opposition. The citizens of London were friendly to him. The bishops and clergy adopted his cause, and the nobility seconded his pretensions. The title of Edgar was scarcely mentioned, much less the claim of the Duke of Normandy, and Harold, assembling his partisans, received the crown from their hands without waiting for an assembly of the States. If any were averse to this measure, they were obliged to conceal their sentiments, and, taking silence for consent, he founded his title on the supposed suffrages of the people, which appeared unanimous, and on the day succeeding Edward's death, Harold was crowned and anointed king, by Aldred, Archbishop of York, and the whole nation appeared to acquiesce in his elevation.

Edward, it is said, had willed the succession to William, Duke of Normandy, but had been prevented by sickness from taking steps for the security of the testament. Harold claimed a similar testamentary right. Tostig, Harold's brother, filled with hatred against him for fancied wrongs, appealed to the King of Norway, who promised to assist him to invade England. He collected a force in Flanders, and, after planning operations with Duke William, he ravaged the southern coast of England, and was afterward defeated by the Earls of Mercia and Northumbria. He then retired to Scotland to await the arrival of his allies. Duke William is in the city of Rouen, when he hears that Edward is dead, and that Harold fills the throne. He is a man of action, and wastes no time in impotent rage. His envoy departs for Rome, to ask that Nicholas II. should put England under interdict—the England who had chosen a perjurer for king, that had expelled a Norman archbishop whom Rome had consecrated, that had ceased to pay Peter's pence, which her pious kings of old had willingly given! The duke secured the aid of Rome. He was not so successful with the King of France, whose aid he implored. Philip of France thought his imperious vassal somewhat too powerful already. Baldwin of Flanders, his brother-in-law, was equally indisposed to assist him in his enterprise. Conan, of Brittany, after William had for some time announced his design, declared war against

him, claiming Normandy as his own. Conan soon paid the penalty of his rashness. He died by poison.

William had still to surmount difficulties with his own people. He called a great council at his castle of Lillebonne, of his principal warriors, churchmen, and burghers, and told them of his plans, and asked their aid. They retired to deliberate. Fierce was the debate, and though Fitz-Osbert, the seneschal of Normandy, urged their compliance, they sturdily refused what William asked. They would give no double knight's service. They would defend their own country, but they would not aid their duke in making a conquest beyond the sea. William soon found out a secret which has been transmitted to later times. Those who were obstinate in a public assembly, were pliant enough in private negotiations. Gold did more than the eloquence of Fitz-Osbert.

Then went forth a proclamation. That, supported by the Holy Father of Christendom, who had sent to him a consecrated banner, William, Duke of Normandy, was about to demand, by force of arms, his rightful inheritance of England, and that all who would serve him with spear, sword, or cross-bow, should be amply rewarded. At this call gathered all the adventurers of Western Europe. They came in crowds from Maine and Anjou, from Poitou and Brittany, from Aquitaine and Burgundy, from France and Flanders. They should have land; they should have money; they should wed Saxon heiresses; the humblest foot soldier should be a gentleman—such were the inducements. The summer of 1066 was almost passed before the arrangements were complete.

As the King of Norway, accompanied by Tostig, landed unopposed at Scarborough, they were met near York by the northern earls, who were defeated, and retreating to York, were besieged in that city.

Harold, when informed of this defeat, hastened with an army to the assistance of his people, and showed the greatest ardor to be considered worthy of the crown conferred on him. The people flocked from all quarters to join his standard, and as soon as he had reached the enemy at Stamford, found himself in a condition to give them battle.

The action was a bloody one, and the victory decisive on the side of Harold, and ended in the total rout of the Norwegians, together with the death of King Halfgar and Tostig. Even the Norwegian fleet fell into the hands of Harold, who had the generosity to give Prince Olave, son of Halfgar, his liberty and allowed him to depart with twenty ships. But he had scarcely time to rejoice over the victory, when he received intelligence that the Duke of Normandy had landed on the 29th September, 1066, at Pevensey.

He hastily gathered what troops he could round the nucleus of his own immediate followers who had been with him at Stamford, and commenced his march southward to meet the enemy. All the south of England joined him gladly, both from Wessex and East Anglia.

The Norman fleet, consisting of over one thousand vessels of all sizes, and a selected army of fifty thousand men, had been assembled early in the summer near the mouth of the river Dive, where they were detained for over thirty days by contrary winds. On the 27th September they embarked, and soon after weighed anchor, and departed for the opposite shore, where they arrived two days after, and quietly landed on Pevensey beach. Shortly after they removed their camp to Hastings.

Harold was so confident of success, that he sent a message to William, promising him a sum of money if he would leave the country without the spilling of blood, but his offer was rejected with disdain.

William, not to be outdone by his enemy in making offers, sent him a message with three proposals, requiring him, either to resign the kingdom, and hold it of him in fealty; or to submit their cause to the arbitration of the Pope; or to fight him in single combat. Harold replied that the God of battles would soon arbitrate between them. His brother Gurth, a man of great bravery and experience, entertained fears for the result of the battle, and advised the king not to expose his person in the action. Harold was deaf to all remonstrances, elated with his recent success, as well as stimulated by his native courage, and resolved to give battle in person.

On the 13th October the army of Harold was encamped on a

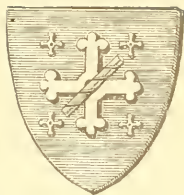
range of hills near a place then called Senlac. The English spent the night in riot, jollity, and discord. The Normans, on another range of hills, passed the night in the functions of their religion, silence and prayer.

On the morning of the 14th October, 1066, the duke called his commanders together, and made them a suitable speech, divided his army into three lines, and at nine o'clock in the morning moved across the valley, with the Papal banner carried in advance. They were formidable in their cavalry and bowmen. The English waited the attack, and received the foe like a mighty wall, and after a desperate fight of six hours the English were defeated with great loss, and William had gained at Hastings the crown of England. Harold was slain by an arrow while he was fighting with great bravery at the head of his men, and his two brothers shared his fate. The English, discouraged by the fall of their king, gave way on all sides. They were pursued with great slaughter until darkness saved them.

The Norman army, before leaving the field, returned thanks to heaven in the most solemn manner. William had three horses killed under him. The dead body of Harold was brought to him before leaving the field, and was restored by him to his mother, without ransom. The loss of the English was over twenty thousand men, and the Normans about fifteen thousand.

Harold married the daughter of Algar, widow of Griffith, King of Wales, but had no issue, and died on the 14th October, 1066, after ten months' reign.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Malcolm III. ; France: Philip I. ; Emperor of the West: Henry IV.



THE NORMAN RULE.

A.D. 1066-1154.

NORMANDY, a northwest province of France, is bounded on the north and west by the English channel; on the east by Picardy, and south by Maine, Brittany, and Perche.

The early Gallic inhabitants were subdued by the Romans, before the birth of Christ. Early in the tenth century it was conquered by the Norsemen, who gave it the name of Normandy.

In the year of our Lord 912, Charles the Simple, King of France, gave his consent to the conquest of the Northmen, and Rollo, their chief, received the title of Duke of Normandy.

William, the illegitimate son of Duke Robert the Devil, sixth successor of Rollo, and Duke of Normandy, became, in the year 1066, the conqueror and first Norman king of England.

William I. (the Conqueror)—A.D. 1066-1087.

Born at Falaise, Normandy, September 9, 1025.

Conquered England, at battle of Hastings, October 14, 1066.

Crowned at Westminster Abbey, December 25, 1066, by Aldred, Archbishop of York.

Married Matilda, daughter of Baldwin V., Count of Flanders, fifth in descent from Ethelwida, daughter of Alfred the Great, and tenth in descent from Charlemagne. Had issue :

Robert, his successor to the Duchy of Normandy.

Richard, killed in the New Forest.

William "Rufus," who succeeded him.

Henry, who succeeded William II.

Cecile, who took the veil.

Constance, married the Earl of Brittany.

Alice, died young.

Adela, married Stephen, Count of Blois.

Agatha, died September 9, 1087, at Rouen, and buried at Caen.

WILLIAM—surnamed the Conqueror—from his victory over Harold, at Hastings, was born at Falaise, Normandy, September 9, 1025 ; was the illegitimate son of Robert, Duke of Normandy, called Robert the Devil, and Arletta, the beautiful daughter of a tanner.

The death of Harold at the battle of Hastings had left England without a king. Nothing could exceed the consternation of the English when they received intelligence of the unfortunate battle, the death of the king, the slaughter of their principal nobility and bravest warriors, and the complete rout of the army.

But although the loss which they had sustained was considerable, it might have been repaired where the people generally were well armed, and where there resided so many powerful noblemen, who could have assembled their retainers and obliged the Duke of Normandy to divide his army, and probably waste it, in a variety of actions and rencontres. It was thus that the kingdom had formerly resisted its invaders.

But there were many vices in the Anglo-Saxon constitution, which rendered it difficult for the English to defend their liberties in so critical an emergency. The people in a measure had lost their national pride and spirit by their recent and long subjection to the Danes ; and as Canute had, in the course of his administration, much abated the rigor of conquest, and had governed them equitably by their own laws, they regarded with less terror the ignominy of a foreign yoke, and as they had long been accustomed to regard Edgar Atheling, the only heir to the Saxon line, as too young and unfit to govern them

even in times of peace and tranquillity, they could entertain but small hopes of his being able to repair such great losses as they had sustained, or to withstand the victorious arms of the Duke of Normandy.

That they might not be altogether wanting in their duty, the two leading earls, Edwin and Morcar, in concert with Stigand, Archbishop of Canterbury, called a meeting of the Witan, or an assembly of the principal nobility to represent one. They were in hopes that, now the house of Godwin was practically destroyed, the crown might be given to one of these two earls, but they were disappointed in their hopes. Of properly qualified candidates there were none, but the assembly preferred to place the crown upon the head of the grandson of Edmund "Ironsides," young Edgar Atheling, and he was proclaimed king. They endeavored to place the people in a posture of defence, and encouraged them to resist the Normans.

But, owing to the treasonable conduct of the two earls, Edwin and Morcar, after the election of the young king, by withdrawing their troops, although they accepted the election, and refusing to give practical support for the defence of Wessex, no further combined action was possible, and no other great battle was fought.

Meanwhile William, determined that his enemies should not have leisure to recover from their consternation, or unite in councils, put himself in motion to make good his conquest. He determined to subdue the southeastern counties before he advanced against London. He marched eastward, took Romney, and captured the town and castle of Dover, and had reached Canterbury, where he was seized with an illness which kept him inactive during the whole month of November. He sent a force which secured the great town of Winchester, and thence in December he moved to attack the capital, but contented himself with burning the suburb of Southwark, and passed on westward on the southern side of the Thames, which he did not cross until he reached Wallingford, intending to pass northward, and thus cut the city off from the unconquered country. With this view he marched to Berkhamstead, in Hertfordshire. His progress had broken the spirit of the Londoners. The clergy,

whose influence was great over the people, now began to declare in his favor. Most of the bishops and higher clergy were even then French or Normans, and they insisted that the Pope's "Bull" hallowed and authorized his accession, and they supported him.

Kent having submitted, Southwark being burnt before their eyes made them dread a like fate for their own city, and no man now entertained a thought but for self-preservation.

As soon as William had passed the Thames, Stigand, the Lord Primate, made submission to him when he came within sight of the city. All the chief nobility, and Edgar Atheling, the newly elected king, came into his camp, and declared their intention of yielding to his authority.

They now requested him to ascend the throne, which they considered vacant.

Though this was the object to which the duke's expedition tended, he pretended to deliberate on the offer, and, wishing to preserve the appearance of a legal administration, desired to obtain the formal assent of the English nation. But Aimar of Aquitaine, a man greatly respected for valor in the field and prudence in the council, remonstrated on the danger of delay at so critical a time; so he laid aside all further scruples, and accepted the crown that was tendered to him.

Orders were immediately issued to prepare for the ceremony of the coronation; but, as he was yet afraid to place entire confidence in the Londoners, who were numerous and warlike, he ordered fortresses to be erected, in order to crush the inhabitants and to make safe his person and government.

The coronation took place at Westminster Abbey, December 25, 1066, and was performed by Aldred, Archbishop of York. The appointment of the Archbishop of Canterbury was not regarded by William as canonical, and he was soon after removed.

In his oath the king bound himself to protect the church; to administer justice, and to suppress violence; he was then anointed and the crown was placed upon his head. He then retired into Barking, and there received the submission of all the nobility who had not attended his coronation. They were received into favor and confirmed in the possession of their estates

and dignities. Everything bore the appearance of peace and tranquillity, and William had no other occupation than to give contentment to the foreigners who had assisted him to mount the throne, and his subjects who had submitted to him.

The king had now a difficult duty to perform: he had to propitiate the rapacity of his own people and to avert the hatred of those he was called to rule over. The estates of the crown were his; he had confiscated the possessions of the late king and of the Harold family. He treated Edgar Atheling with kindness; he exhorted his followers to moderation. He so regulated the collection of the revenue that the burden should be equally distributed. He prohibited all riotous assemblies, provided for the safe passage of traders and the transport of merchandise by sea and land. But he gave the custody of all strongholds and fortresses to his Norman leaders; and when the country was considered settled, the rule was given to Saxon chiefs. Up to this time no part of the country had suffered from any change in the tenure of property or in the ancient laws.

The army was governed with severe discipline; care was taken to give as little offence as possible to the vanquished people. The king appeared solicitous to unite the Normans and the English in amity by intermarriage and alliances, and all his new subjects who approached his person were received with affability and regard.

No signs of suspicion appeared, not even toward Edgar Atheling, whom William confirmed as Earl of Oxford, created by Harold. Although he had confiscated the estates of Harold, and many who had fought against him at Hastings, he seemed willing to admit of every plausible excuse, and received many into his favor who had borne arms against him. He confirmed the liberties and privileges of London and other cities, and appeared willing to replace everything on the old footing. The better to reconcile his new subjects to his authority, he made a journey through many parts of the country, and by his majestic presence, his splendid court, and military fame, together with his clemency and mercy, gained the approbation of the wise and thoughtful of his new people.

But amidst all this confidence and friendship which he expressed for the English, he took good care to place all real power in the hands of the Normans and still keep possession of the sword, to which he knew he owed his advancement to sovereign authority. He disarmed the city of London and other places most warlike and populous; built citadels in that city, as well as in Winchester, Hereford, and in others best situated for commanding the kingdom; quartered Norman soldiers in all of them, and left no power able to resist or oppose him. He then bestowed the confiscated estates on the most eminent of his commanders, and established funds for the payment of his soldiers; and thus, while his civil administration carried the face of a legal magistrate, his military institutions were those of a master and tyrant.

By this mixture of rigor and lenity, he thought he might be enabled safely now to visit his native country, and enjoy the triumph and congratulations of his former subjects. He left the administration of the government in the hands of his half-brother, Odo, Bishop of Baieux, and William Fitzosborne. That their power should be exposed to less danger, he took the principal nobility of England with him, who, while they seemed to add to the splendor of his court, were in reality hostages for the fidelity of the nation.

During the long absence of the Conqueror from England, his viceroys commenced a system of oppression which might have exterminated a people less bold and enduring than the Anglo-Saxon race. Odo and Fitzosborne, the king's lieutenants, gave no heed to the reasonable complaints of the people, and disdained to entertain them. The soldiers outrageously robbed the people, and the women were exposed to their gross licentiousness.

The discontent of the English people increased daily, and the injuries committed and endured on both sides made the quarrel grow daily more rancorous. The insolence of the victorious masters dispersed throughout the kingdom became intolerable to them, and whenever they found the Normans alone or in small bodies they secretly set upon and murdered them.

A secret conspiracy was entered into to perpetrate, in one day,

a general massacre of the Normans, like that which had formerly been executed on the Danes. The king, being informed of this dangerous conspiracy, hurried back to England, leaving the government of Normandy in the hands of his queen, Matilda, and his eldest son Robert. He sailed from Dieppe, and arrived at Winchester on December 6, 1067. He kept Christmas in London, and, by the vigorous measures which he instituted, disconcerted the schemes of the conspirators. The most violent of them made their escape, and the confiscation of their estates followed, which enabled him to further gratify the rapacity of his Norman commanders and gave them the prospect of further forfeitures and attainders.

William now began to regard all his English subjects as inveterate and irreclaimable enemies, and thenceforth was confirmed in the resolution of seizing all their possessions and reducing them to abject slavery; but he had still the art to conceal his intentions, and to observe some appearance of justice in his oppressions.

Edgar Atheling and his two sisters, Princesses Margaret and Christiana, had escaped to Scotland, where they had been kindly received by King Malcolm, who shortly after married the Princess Margaret.

Queen Matilda arrived from Normandy in April, 1068, and was immediately crowned at Winchester, by Aldred, Archbishop of York. She was soon afterward delivered of her fourth son, but the first of English birth. He was baptized as Henry, and succeeded his brother William on the throne as Henry I.

The four years which succeeded William's return from Normandy completed the subjection of the English people, and in the development of his character we trace the various gradations from mildness to ferocity; from justice to the most lawless exercise of power; from the ordinary cruelty of a despot, to delight for blood and devastation, which few tyrants have been able to equal. He had none of the capricious impulses of ordinary tyrants, and few of their petty jealousies. If a rival was weak, he fed and flattered him; if strong, he imprisoned or murdered him. If a city or district gracefully yielded, after a brief resistance, he asked no forfeiture of life or liberty of its

defenders. If resistance was obstinate and general, there was no punishment short of extermination, root and branch. One great end he never lost sight of—the plunder of the land, which he either added to the royal demesne or divided among his followers, who became the feudal lords, and thus was established the foundation of a powerful aristocracy, which, amid the social revolution of centuries, has more successfully defended its ascendancy than that of any other country of Europe.

The population of England at this time appears to have been under three million inhabitants. About one hundred boroughs were governed by municipal customs, or under the protection of the king, nobles, or prelates, from whom, in after-times, they purchased their franchises.

In the course of time the distinction between the Norman conquerors and the conquered Saxons passed away, and from their union arose the English people as they now exist.

It was not to the victory of Hastings, but to the struggle which followed his return from Normandy, that William owed his title of “The Conqueror.” During his absence there, the tyranny of his half-brother, Bishop Odo, had forced the Kentish men to seek aid from Count Eustace of Boulogne, while the Welsh princes supported a similar rising against Norman oppression in the west. A league of the western towns; headed by Exeter, threatened to prove a more serious danger; but William found an English force to suppress it, and it was at the head of an English army that he advanced upon Mercia and the north. His march through Central England reduced Edwin and Mowbray to submission. In the meantime the Northumbrians had invested York, where they were joined by Edgar Atheling with a band of noble exiles who had taken refuge in Scotland. The Normans made a sally upon the insurgents, but were utterly defeated, with immense loss, and the city was fired by the garrison. In the west, the men of Devon, Somerset, and Dorset gathered at the sieges of Exeter and Monticote, while the new Norman castle at Shrewsbury alone stood the rising along the Welsh border. So ably had the revolt been planned that even William was taken by surprise. The news of the loss of York and the slaughter of three thousand Nor-

mans, who formed part of its garrison, reached him as he was hunting in the forest of Dean, and in a wild outburst of wrath he swore, by "the splendor of God," to avenge himself on Northumbria; but wrath went hand in hand with the coolest statesmanship.

Sweyn, the King of Denmark, had for two years been preparing to dispute England with the Normans, and on the appearance of his fleet in the Humber, to assist the insurgents, William saw clearly that the centre of resistance lay with the Danes; and pushing rapidly to the Humber with a handful of horsemen, he purchased, by a heavy bribe, their inactivity and withdrawal. He granted them the liberty of plundering the sea-coast, provided they would return to Denmark without committing further hostilities, which they agreed to. On their departure, leaving York to the last, William turned rapidly westward with the troops which gathered around him, and swept the Welsh Marshes as far as Shrewsbury. Exeter had already been relieved by Fitzosborne, and the king was free to fulfil his oath of vengeance on the north. After a long delay owing to the flooded waters of the Aire, he entered York.

King Malcolm, on his arrival from Scotland, found the Danes had sailed for home, and that his confederates had separated; and he, with Edgar Atheling and his followers, returned to Scotland.

William was now undisputed master of the field, and determined to incapacitate the Northumbrians from ever giving him any further trouble. He issued orders for laying waste that fertile country, which for the extent of sixty miles lies between the Humber and the Tees; the houses were reduced to ashes, the cattle seized and driven away, the instruments of husbandry destroyed, and the inhabitants obliged to seek shelter in Scotland; and those who remained perished in the woods from cold and hunger, to the number of one hundred thousand souls, sacrificed to this barbarous policy.

The native English were now treated as a conquered people, and William was determined to reduce them to a condition in which they should no longer be formidable to his government. The work of vengeance was no sooner over, than William led

his army back from the Tees to York, and thence to Chester and the west.

The insurrections and conspiracies in so many parts of the kingdom had involved the majority of the landed proprietors, and the king took the advantage of putting into execution against them the laws of forfeiture and attainder. Their lives were spared, but their estates were confiscated, and were either annexed to the royal demesnes, or conferred on his countrymen, the king declaring his intention of extirpating the English nobility and gentry.

It was a sufficient crime for an Englishman to be opulent or noble, and the policy of the king, together with the rapacity of the foreign adventurers, produced almost a total revolution in the landed property of the kingdom. Ancient and opulent families were reduced to beggary; the nobles everywhere were treated with contempt, and had the mortification of seeing their castles and manors possessed by Normans of the lowest birth and meanest stations, and they themselves excluded from every road to riches or preferment.

He divided the whole country into sixty thousand portions, which were termed Knight's fees, the greater part of which he granted to his chief officers; but he also kept vast estates in his own hands.

The persons who received these grants were termed tenants-in-chief, and instead of rent they were bound to find one fully equipped horseman, and six light armed attendants, who were to serve the king for forty days in each year, without pay, for each fee. The whole were granted to about fourteen hundred persons, who in their turn granted portions to others, called under-tenants, for like services as they themselves had to render to the king.

This great change in the country is known as the establishment of the feudal system; something like it, on a limited scale, had been in use among the Saxons, but William extended it over the whole country, and on so firm a basis that many parts of it exist to the present day. It supplied him, without expense, with a large army, and also produced a revenue which his predecessors had never enjoyed.

It is under William's reign that we first hear of knights. They were soldiers who had already served in the capacity of squire to some other knight or nobleman, and been promoted for services on the field.

William introduced into England the curfew bell, on the ringing of which all fires and lights must be extinguished at a certain hour.

The religious houses were plundered and the principal members of the Saxon clergy deposed or banished, to make room for the Norman. The Pope and ecclesiastics exclaimed against this tyranny; but the king's authority was so well established that superstition itself, even in that age, was obliged to bend under his influence. He held the church in great subjection; he prohibited his subjects from acknowledging any one as pope whom he did not recognize as such; and that none of his ministers or barons could be censured or excommunicated from the church without his consent being first obtained. He even entertained the idea of entirely abolishing the English language; and for that purpose ordered that in all schools throughout the kingdom the French language should be taught; the pleadings in the courts of law were in French, and no other tongue allowed to be used at court.

In 1071 a few Saxons who had taken refuge in the Isle of Ely, under Earl Morcar and the brave Hereward, were attacked, and after a long siege were obliged to surrender; the leaders were thrown into prison, and William again disgraced himself by ordering the hands cut off and the eyes put out of many among the inferior prisoners.

In 1082, Odo the bishop fell into disgrace, and was imprisoned during the remainder of William's life. He was Earl of Kent as well as bishop, and when some of his friends ventured to remonstrate on his captivity, William replied that he never would think of imprisoning a bishop, but that he would deal with the Earl of Kent as he chose.

Between 1080 and 1086 a survey was made of England, and a division of the spoil, called The Domesday Book, is still preserved in the Public Record Office. It shows that the leaders at the battle of Hastings had been well provided for. William's

half-brothers—Robert, Earl of Montaigne, and Odo the bishop—had seven hundred and ninety-three and four hundred and thirty-nine manors, and William himself one thousand three hundred, though King Edward had possessed but one hundred and sixty-five, and Harold only one hundred and eighteen.

The conquest of England was hardly over when the struggle between the king and the barons began. The rising was speedily put down, and the leaders, Roger, son of Fitzosborne, Earl of Hereford, and Ralf de Guador, whom the king had rewarded by creating him Earl of Norfolk for his services at the battle of Hastings, were imprisoned.

Scotland, already humbled by William's invasions, was bridled by the erection of a strong fortress at Newcastle-upon-Tyne.

In 1076 Pope Gregory wrote a letter to William, requiring him to do homage for the kingdom of England to the See of Rome, and to pay him tribute. By the latter he meant "Peter's pence." William replied that the money would be sent, but it was not his purpose to impose such servitude as homage on his state.

Dissensions now broke out between the king and his son Robert, in Normandy. Robert desired to make his nominal position real, and demanded Normandy and Maine of his father, which was refused. Robert had inherited all the bravery of his family without that policy and dissimulation which so deeply characterized his father. He could endure no control—not even from his father.

He now openly aspired to independence; he had the support of the young nobility and of the King of France, and he entertained an intense jealousy of his two brothers, William and Henry.

William was now in Normandy, and called over an army of English soldiers, under command of his old captains, who soon put down the revolt. He then banished Robert with his adherents and restored his authority as sovereign over all his dominions.

In the year 1087 William declared war against France, invaded that country, and laid everything waste with fire and sword. He took the town of Mantes and reduced it to ashes:

but the progress of these hostilities was stopped by an accident, which soon put an end to his life. His horse starting aside suddenly, he was thrown against the pommel of his saddle, causing a dangerous rupture, from which he shortly after died.

Finding his end approaching, he endeavored to make atonement by presents to churchmen and monasteries, and sent orders for the release of Earl Morcar and other noble prisoners; but it was with great difficulty he could be brought to pardon his half-brother Odo the bishop.

His son Robert was then at the court of France; but he left him the duchy of Normandy as his birthright. To William, whom he praised as a dutiful son, he gave his conquest of England, and advised him to hasten over and secure it; while to his younger son, Henry, he gave £5,000 in silver instead of domains, and some small possessions of his mother, Matilda.

William died in the sixty-third year of his age, the twenty-first of his reign over England, and fifty-fourth over Normandy.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Malcolm III., Donald Bain, Duncan, Edgar; France: Philip I.; Emperor of the West: Henry IV.

William II. (Rufus)—A.D. 1087-1100.

Born in Normandy, 1056.

Crowned September 26, 1087.

Accidentally killed while hunting in the New Forest, August 2, 1100.

Buried at Winchester.

Never married.

WILLIAM—surnamed Rufus, or Red Head—third son of William I. and his wife Matilda, was born in Normandy. He had no sooner received his father's letter, willing him the crown of England, than he started for that country to take measures for securing the government. Sensible that a deed so informal and so little prepared, which violated Robert's right might meet with great opposition, he trusted for success in his celerity. Having left St. Gervais before the king had breathed his last, he arrived in England before the news of his father's death had reached that kingdom. Pretending that he was acting under orders from the king, he seized the castles of Dover, Pevensey,

and Hastings, whose situation rendered them of the greatest importance. He then got possession of the treasury at Winchester, where he found £60,000, by which he hoped to gain partisans for his cause.

He found the lord primate, Lanfranc, his friend, who, believing his pretensions just, declared he would pay a willing obedience to the last will of the Conqueror, his benefactor and friend. Having assembled such of the bishops and nobility as he could trust, Lanfranc instantly proceeded to the coronation of the new king, which was celebrated at Winchester on September 26, 1087, on hearing of which Robert took peaceable possession of the duchy of Normandy.

But, though this partition appeared to have been made without violence or opposition, there were many causes for discontent in England. As the elder brother, Robert would have had a clearer title, the doubts that hung over the succession of the younger brother were very considerable; and, besides this, the severance of the crowns of England and Normandy was not agreeable to many of the Norman barons, who possessed large estates in both countries, and who, uneasy at the separation of those governments, deemed it impossible to continue their allegiance to two masters. They must necessarily resign either their ancient patrimony or their new acquisitions. Robert's title to the duchy they esteemed as incontestable, his claim to the English crown good, and they all desired that he, who alone had any rightful pretensions to unite these states, should be put in possession of both.

A comparison of the personal qualities of the two brothers led them to give the preference to Robert, who was brave, open, sincere, and generous; even his faults of indolence and facility were not disagreeable to those haughty barons, who affected independence. While William, though equally brave, was haughty, violent, and tyrannical, and seemed to govern more through the fear, than the love, of his subjects. And Odo, Bishop of Bai-eux, and Robert, Earl of Montaigne, half brothers of the Conqueror, envying the primate, Lanfranc, encouraged these motives among the disaffected, and engaged with them in a conspiracy to dethrone the king. The conspirators, retiring to their castles,

hastened to put themselves in a military position, expecting soon to be supported by a powerful army from Normandy.

The king, aware of his perilous position, endeavored to engage the affections of the native English, who, now thoroughly subdued, were glad to accept any terms that would mitigate the tyranny of the Norman nobles. They zealously embraced William's cause upon receiving general promises of good treatment, and of enjoying the license of hunting in the royal forests.

The king was soon in a situation to take the field, and as he knew the danger of delay, marched into Kent, where his uncles had seized the castles of Rochester and Pevensey. He first besieged Odo, the most formidable of the conspirators, in Rochester Castle. There were five hundred Normans shut up in that stronghold, among whom were many powerful leaders. It was the height of summer, and the close atmosphere of the castle soon produced disease, a plague breaking out. The garrison were allowed to capitulate, and the Norman revolvers marched out amid the cry from the English, of "a gallows for the bishop." Odo escaped beyond sea, and never returned. His possessions, which were enormous, were all confiscated. Pevensey met a like fate. The other disaffected nobles and bishops were subdued, propitiated, or banished from the kingdom.

William had fitted out a powerful fleet, which prevented reinforcements arriving from Normandy. The rebels now found safety only in flight or submission; a large number were attainted, and the king bestowed their estates on the Norman barons who had remained faithful to him.

The king, now freed from the danger of insurrection, did not fulfil his promises made to the English, who soon found themselves exposed to the same oppressions they had suffered during the reign of the Conqueror, and their troubles increased by the violent temper of the present king.

The primate, Lanfranc, died in 1089. This prelate had great influence over the king, and had kept the more prominent evils of his character under subjection. After Lanfranc's death the king allowed full scope to his tyranny, and soon began to oppress both the people and the church. He appointed no suc-

cessor to the primate, but held the revenues of the See of Canterbury in his own hands. He soon found a more congenial minister than Lanfranc. There was at his court a Norman clerk of the name of Ralph, surnamed Flam bard, or Firebrand, a man of fluent speech, sensual, and ambitious. He was a subtle financier, and he soon managed to swell the king's revenues by a stricter admeasurement of the lands of the kingdom than that of the Domesday Book. He seized the church properties, made exactions on the laity with no pretensions of justice, and even loosened the halter from the robber's neck, if he could promise any gain to the king. The courtiers consumed the substance of the country-people. The state of manners at the court of Rufus is described as the most disgusting mixture of folly, licentiousness, and extravagance.

In the year 1090 William invaded Normandy. The city of Rouen was incited to insurrection chiefly through the promises and bribes of William. Henry came to the aid of Robert, although they had previously quarrelled, and through his determined boldness the revolt was quelled. But William advanced with a large army, and was prevented from commencing hostilities only by the good offices of the King of France; and the nobility on both sides, connected by interest and alliance, negotiated a peace between the brothers—William receiving new territory by the possession of Eu, Aumale, Fescamp, and other places, for which he promised, in return, to assist Robert in subduing Main, which had rebelled, and that the Norman barons attainted in Robert's cause should be restored to their estates in England. The brothers also agreed that, on the death of either without issue, the survivor should inherit both dominions; twelve of the most powerful barons on each side swore they would exercise their utmost power to the end that this compact should be fulfilled.

Henry, disgusted that so little interest should have been shown in regard to himself, retired to St. Michael's Mount, a strong fortress on the coast of Normandy, where he was besieged by both armies, and, after being for some time deprived of water, had to capitulate. He was despoiled of his patrimony, and wandered about Europe for some time in great poverty.

William, returning to England in 1092, repelled the invasions of the Welsh and the Scotch; but a peace was concluded between himself and Malcolm.

Duke Robert visited England to obtain indemnity for possessions which he had surrendered in Normandy, but obtained nothing. On his return, according to the custom of chivalry, Robert sent to England two heralds to denounce his brother as a perjured knight. William, like many other guilty men, would bear no imputation upon his honor, and went to Normandy to submit the points of dispute to arbitration. Twenty-four Norman barons decided against him. He then resolved upon war, and collected a large army at Hastings. But the war was not undertaken, and the soldiers were dismissed to their homes.

William seized Carlisle, which was considered an appanage of the crown of Scotland. Here he founded a colony and built the present castle. Another quarrel was the consequence. Malcolm invaded England with a large army. After ravaging Northumberland, he laid siege to Alnwick, where he was surprised, defeated, and slain, together with his son—some say by treachery. The good Queen Margaret survived her husband and son only four days. William aided the family, and assisted in restoring the younger son to the throne.

In 1096 a new arrangement was entered into between the brothers: Robert pawned his dukedom to William for five years, for the sum of £10,000, to enable him to go on a crusade to the Holy Land. William raised the money by forcible extortions on his subjects. Soon after he was seized with a violent illness, and the clergy represented to him that he was in danger of eternal perdition, if, before his death, he did not make atonement for the numberless impieties and sacrileges of which he had been guilty. But he soon after recovered and returned to his former violence and rapine. He detained in prison several persons whom he had ordered to be freed while he felt penitent, and, imitating his father's example, prohibited his subjects from recognizing the Pope unless authorized by him to do so.

In the year 1100 the Duke of Guienne needed money to assist him in his preparations for raising a large body of horse,

to be led by him against the Saracens, and offered to mortgage his dominions to William, who accepted his offer, and had prepared a fleet and army to take possession of provinces of Guienne and Poitou, when an accident put an end to his life. While hunting in the New Forest, he had just dismounted when he was shot by a French gentleman named Walter Tyrrell, who, without informing any one of the accident, put spurs to his horse, reached the sea-shore, embarked on a vessel about to sail for France, and joined the Crusaders in an expedition against the Saracens—a penance he imposed upon himself for his involuntary crime. Prince Henry, who had been hunting with the king, rode up shortly after, and after a glance at the body, galloped off to Winchester.

The body of William was picked up by some of his servants, and being wrapped in a coarse cloak, was brought on a charcoal-burner's cart to Winchester. He was buried in the cathedral on the day after his death; but, though many of his nobles attended, there were few mourners.

The character of William "Rufus" is thus described by an old writer: "All things that displeased God pleased him, and all things that God loved he hated deadly. On recovering from a sickness he had sworn that 'God should never have any good in him for all the evil he had brought upon him.' From that time he succeeded in everything he undertook or wished for. The very land and sea seemed to serve his will, as if God would leave him without excuse by granting all he wished."

William is described as short and stout, and from his florid complexion he was styled the Red King. He was very strong and active, and, though easily excited to terrible fits of passion, was frank and familiar with his chosen associates, profuse in his gifts, and occasionally showed both forbearance and generosity, particularly to a resolute opponent. He led a most profligate life, was an open scoffer and contemner of religion, and suffered justice (or rather injustice) to be bought and sold. He thus gained a worse character than either his father or his brother, who, though quite as bad men, were more orderly in their conduct, and allowed no other tyranny than their own.

William was born in Normandy in 1056; was crowned September 26, 1087; never married. Accidentally killed August 2, 1100, in the forty-fourth year of his age and thirteenth of his reign. He was succeeded by his younger brother, Henry.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Malcolm III., Donald Bain, Duncan II., Edgar.

Henry I. (Beau Clerk)—A.D. 1100-1135.

Born at Selby, Yorkshire, 1068.

Crowned August 5, 1100.

Married, first, November 11, 1100, Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III., King of Scotland, by Margaret his wife, sister and heiress of Edgar Atheling, and daughter of Edward, son of Edmund "Ironsides." Through this princess the present royal family of England is directly descended from Alfred the Great by Matilda his wife. Issue:

William, born 1102; married, 1119, Isabella, daughter of Fulk, Count of Anjou; lost at sea, November 25, 1120. No issue.

Matilda, born 1104; married, 1114, the Emperor Henry V.; she married, second, April 3, 1127, Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, and died September 10, 1167, having had by him:

Henry, who succeeded to the English throne.

Geoffrey, Count of Nantes, died 1157, and

William, Count of Poitou, died 1163.

Married, second, February 11, 1121, Adeliza, daughter of the Duke of Lovaine. No issue.

Died at St. Denis, Normandy.

HENRY—surnamed Beau Clerk, or the Lettered Prince—was the fourth and youngest son of William the Conqueror and his wife Matilda of Flanders. He was the third monarch of the Norman line, but first of English birth, being born at Selby, in Yorkshire, in the year 1068. Henry, on the death of his father, was in his nineteenth year, and, with the £5,000 then bequeathed to him, bought from his brother Robert the province of Continen, comprising one-third of Normandy.

Entertaining the belief that he was leagued with William "Rufus," Robert imprisoned him; but he was released through the intercession of the Norman barons. When William attacked Robert, Henry sided with the latter, and displayed great energy, courage, and cruelty. At the revolt in Rouen, in 1090, the rebels were led by Conan, a rich burgess of that city. The

insurrection was put down, and Conan taken prisoner and led to the castle. Prince Henry took him to the summit of a tower and bade him look at the beautiful prospect beneath them. "These are the things of which you desired to be master," said the prince to the citizen. "Take all my wealth for a ransom," cried the trembling prisoner. "By the soul of my mother, I will take no ransom;" and with these words Henry seized the wretched man and threw him from the battlements.

The following year, Robert and William, becoming reconciled, turned their combined forces against Henry, compelling him to surrender all his possessions. For several years he lived in seclusion in various places, and sometimes in want, until the people of Dunfret called upon him to rule over them. He made acquisitions at Robert's expense, became reconciled with William, and visited England.

While hunting in the New Forest on August 2, 1100, he heard of William's death. He immediately rode to Winchester, hastened to the treasury, and demanded the keys. De Breteuil, the treasurer, refused to give them up, saying that Prince Henry, as well as himself, had paid homage to Robert, the elder brother, and that he was the rightful successor. Henry drew his sword, and at length, by force and persuasion, obtained the royal treasures.

He immediately hastened to London with the money, assembled some prelates and noblemen, whom he soon gained to his side by the assistance of the money or his abilities and address, and was immediately proclaimed king. Three days after his brother's death the ceremony of his coronation was performed at London by Maurice, bishop of that see; and thus, by courage, celerity, and determination, he seized the vacant throne. No one had sufficient spirit or sense of duty to appear in behalf of Robert, then in the Holy Land, and the barons and the people acquiesced in the usurpation.

The king, fearing that a crown gained against all rules of justice would sit unsteadily on his head, resolved, by fair professions at least, to gain the affections of the people. He therefore passed a charter remedying many of the grievous oppressions complained of during the reigns of his father and brother;

made concessions to the clergy, and conciliated them by inviting Anselm back to England; promised to remedy existing abuses and maintain the old Anglo-Saxon laws and usages. The charter he granted becoming the basis of all subsequent reforms, he offered a pardon for all offences, and remitted all debts due the crown.

To give greater effect and authenticity to these concessions, he caused a copy of the charter to be lodged in some abbey of each county for the information of all his subjects, and as a perpetual rule for their government. But the grievances meant to be redressed were still continued to their full extent, and the king found often greater opposition when he enforced the laws than when he violated them. Upon his accession he purged his government of the evil ministers of his brother's pleasures and the corrupt administrators of his oppressive exactions.

Duke Robert, after the conquest of Jerusalem, had set out on his journey home. Passing through the Norman dominions in Italy, he was cordially received by Geoffrey of Conversana, in Apulia, where he lingered long, and finally married Sibylla, the daughter of his entertainer. With his young and handsome wife he received a marriage portion sufficient to redeem his mortgaged dukedom. He arrived in Normandy a few weeks after Henry had been firmly seated on the throne of England.

Instead of attempting to assert his right, he wasted his wife's fortune on base favorites, abandoned himself to indolence, and, as he had done before, suffered his barons to make war on each other and rob and murder with impunity.

The Normans in England soon showed that they were dissatisfied with Henry's mode of government, which was strict and orderly, and they began confederating together to place Robert upon the throne, feeling secure of doing as they pleased under his indolent rule.

Henry, to defeat their schemes, took the decided step of openly joining himself with the Saxons. He therefore took from a convent a princess of Saxon descent—Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III., King of Scotland, and niece of Edgar Atheling. She had been educated under the care of her aunt, the Abbess of Wilton, who caused her to wear the veil to protect her from

the Norman barons, who had seized the Saxon maidens for wives or mistresses. She was very dear to the English people in consequence of her connection with the old Saxon line.

He had also recourse to the superstition of the people, and paid great court to the primate Anselm. He promised him that he would have a strict regard to all ecclesiastical privileges, professed a great attachment to the Church of Rome, and promised implicit obedience to the will of the Sovereign Pontiff. By these promises he gained the confidence of the primate, whose influence over the people and authority over the barons were of the greatest service to him, and, joined to the influence of the Earls of Warwick and Mellant and a few powerful barons who still adhered to the present government, the army was retained in the king's interest.

Henry, knowing that Flambard (created Bishop of Durham by the late king) was regarded as the chief instrument of the extortions of that reign, ordered him to be seized and confined in fetters in the Tower.

The bishop, however, did not long remain a prisoner. As he was rich he made dainty feasts for his keepers, and while they were carousing he lowered himself from the window by means of a rope that his friends had sent him in a cask of wine, and escaped to Normandy, where he became Duke Robert's chief counsellor. He gave the duke to understand that the Norman barons, and their Norman followers, were all-powerful in England, and induced him to undertake an invasion of that country, to secure the crown wrested from him during his absence in the Holy Land. By his activity troops were got ready and a fleet prepared, to which several of Henry's ships deserted.

In July, 1101, Robert landed at Portsmouth and was soon joined by a large body of the Normans. Henry faced them with his Saxons, but he was too prudent to expose his untried troops; he took the wiser course, and would not allow Robert to bring him to a battle. Robert then proposed to decide the quarrel by a single combat, but Henry declined this, as unsuitable to the dignity of a king. So the armies lay for several days in sight of each other without coming to action. Both princes were anxious about the result, and willingly listened to the

counsel of the Archbishop Anselm and other leading noblemen who mediated between them. Henry then desired a private conference with his brother; they met in the presence of the hostile troops, who formed a magnificent circle around them, displaying the terrible and brilliant spectacle of the Normans and the English under arms.

They were soon reconciled. Robert was of a generous and yielding nature. Henry was far-seeing and prudent. A treaty was concluded, of which the chief article was, that Robert should relinquish his claims upon the crown of England for a pension of three thousand marks a year, and Henry, on his part, promised to pardon his brother's adherents. They also agreed that if either died without issue, the other should succeed to his dominions, and that neither of them should ever after encourage, receive, or protect the enemies of the other. The rivalry of the two brothers was not subdued, but the blood of the two hostile races was no more to be poured out on English ground.

After Duke Robert had remained a guest at the court of the king for some time, he and his troops returned to Normandy, and Henry disbanded his army.

Henry was the first to violate the spirit of the treaty, subsequently indicting, under different pretences, several noblemen, friends of Robert, who had favored the cause of the latter. They were banished the kingdom and their estates confiscated.

Robert, angered by the fate of his friends, imprudently visited England to remonstrate with his brother against the breach of treaty, but he met with so bad a reception that he feared for his own liberty, and was glad to purchase an escape by resigning his annual pension.

Henry occupied himself for several years in strengthening his position in England, and in 1105 paid a visit to Normandy, and found the nobility there dissatisfied, and more disposed to pay submission to him than to their legal sovereign. The latter had lost his wife, and for two or three years his conduct gave great public offence. Many of the nobles, who had also estates in England, gathered around him, and encouraged what was no doubt the secret desire of his heart, the possession of the duchy. Yet the brothers parted friends. On Henry's return to England

he raised a large army, and the following year returned to Normandy in a position to obtain possession of that duchy by either corruption or violence. He took Bayeux by storm, after an obstinate siege, and made himself master of Caen by the voluntary submission of its inhabitants, but, being repulsed at Falaise, and winter approaching, he was forced to raise the siege, and returned to England, after giving assurance to his adherents in Normandy that he would persevere in supporting and protecting them.

The following year he renewed the invasion with the siege of Tinchebray. Robert was at length aroused from his lethargy, hastened to its relief, and seven battles were fought before its walls, the last on September 20, 1106. Henry was victorious and made ten thousand prisoners, among them his brother, Duke Robert, who was kept a prisoner for the remainder of his life in Cardiff Castle, and Edgar Atheling, who passed the remaining years of his eventful life in England, an object of pity rather than of fear.

This victory was followed by the final reduction of Normandy, and having assembled the states Henry received the homage of all. He then settled the government and returned to England at the end of the year.

At the time of the battle of Tinchebray, Duke Robert had a son five years old, named William, the possible heir of the two kingdoms. Henry committed him to honest guardianship, but in another year repented of his honesty, and desired to get the young prince into his power. But De St. Saen fled with his charge and put him under the protection of Louis, King of France, who used him to check the growing power of Henry. In 1119 he married the daughter of Fulk, Count of Anjou.

The acquisition of Normandy was the great point of Henry's ambition, being the ancient patrimony of his family, and the only territory that gave him weight or consideration on the continent; but the injustice of his usurpation involved him in frequent wars, and obliged him to impose upon his English subjects many heavy and arbitrary taxes. Troubles arising on the continent, Henry was obliged to remain in Normandy for two years, to the great discontent of the English.

Queen Matilda, widow of the Conqueror, died in the year 1118. She had long retired to the monastery of Westminster, where she spent her revenues for the relief of the poor and sick, and in other acts of charity.

Henry's right to the throne was now disputed by his nephew, Prince William of Normandy, whose claims were supported by the Counts of Flanders and Anjou, and the King of France.

In 1119 Henry gained a victory over the French at Breteuil, which decided the war in his favor, and peace was made, in which the interests of young William were entirely neglected. At the close of the year Henry prepared to leave Normandy, for England. As he was about to embark there came to him a mariner, who said that Stephen, the son of Airard, was his father, and that Stephen was the owner of the ship that conveyed the Conqueror to make war on Harold, and he asked the king to sail with him on his ship, the "Blanch-Nef." Henry replied that he had chosen his ship, but that his son might sail with the son of Airard. The king put to sea in the first watch of the night, and reached England in safety. The young Prince William and his companions went on board full of merriment and wine, and the rowers and steersmen were wild with drink. As they pulled out of the harbor, incapable of directing the vessel, she struck upon a rock, filled, and went down. William got safely into another boat, but hearing the cries of his sister for assistance, returned to help her, when, the crew rushing into his boat, she upset and filled, and every soul perished.

When the news reached England the king was in great anxiety, but no one dared to tell him of the sad event. By a concerted plan, a boy threw himself at the king's feet, weeping bitterly, and told his tale. Henry instantly fell to the ground, and was carried to his chamber, where he remained for some time. He was never seen to smile again, nor did he ever recover his wonted cheerfulness.

The death of William may be regarded in one respect as a misfortune to the English, because it was the immediate source of those civil wars which, after the death of the king, caused such confusion in the kingdom.

The Court of Exchequer, as a financial body, was first estab-

lished in this reign. It took its name from a chequered table at which they sat, on which accounts were rendered.

Henry being now a widower, without male issue, married, in 1121, Adelaide, the daughter of the Duke of Louvain, but she brought him no children.

Prince William of Normandy succeeded to the earldom of Flanders in right of his mother, and was now in a position of great power and prosperity.

The Emperor Henry V. being dead, his widow Matilda, Henry's daughter, returned to England. At a solemn assembly of bishops and nobles at Windsor, on the 25th of December, 1126, it was declared that the ex-empress Matilda was the next heir to the throne, failing all future legitimate male issue to the king. They all swore to maintain her succession.

An alliance with the Plantagenets was one of the great objects of Henry's ambition. Fulk V., Earl of Anjou, had surrendered his earldom to his eldest son, Geoffrey Plantagenet, and Henry negotiated a marriage between him and his daughter, the Empress Matilda. It was celebrated at Rouen at Whitsuntide, April 3, 1127. The marriage was not a happy one. The king had constantly to interfere between the husband and wife. Matilda had much of her father's imperious spirit, and Geoffrey made many demands which Henry resisted. In the year 1133 Matilda bore a son, Henry, who afterward succeeded to the throne. The oath to maintain the succession was renewed, and Henry was freed from much disquiet by the death of his nephew William, Count of Flanders, who died from the effects of wounds received in battle.

In 1133, England being tranquil, Henry again visited Normandy, but this time out of tenderness to his daughter Matilda, to whom he was greatly attached. The pleasure of his daughter's company made his residence there long and agreeable, and he thought of passing the remainder of his days with her, when an invasion of the Welsh obliged him to return to England. He was preparing for his journey when he was seized with sudden illness at the Castle of Lions, near Rouen, from eating too plentifully of lampreys, and after four days' illness, the

while beating his breast and lamenting his sins, he died on December 1, 1135, in the sixty-seventh year of his age, and thirty-fifth of his reign.

Henry was one of the most accomplished princes that ever filled the English throne, and possessed all the great qualities of body and mind, natural and acquired, to fit him for his high station. From his great progress in literature he acquired the name of "Beauclerc," or the scholar. His person was manly, and his manners affable and engaging, without allowing familiarity. He was much addicted to women, and it is said he had seven illegitimate sons and six daughters born to him. Hunting was his favorite amusement.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Edgar, Alexander I., David I.; France: Philip I., Louis VI.; Emperors of the West: Henry IV., Henry V., Lothaire II.

Stephen—A.D. 1135-1154.

Born at Blois, 1104.

Crowned December 26, 1135.

Married Matilda, daughter and heiress of Eustace, Count of Boulogne, by

Mary his wife, daughter of Malcolm III. of Scotland, who died 1151

Had issue:

Eustace, Count of Boulogne, who married Constance, sister of Louis VII. of France.

William, Count of Montaigne, died 1159.

Mary, Countess of Boulogne, married Matthew, son of the Count of Flanders.

Died at Dover, October 25, 1154.

He compromised with the Empress Matilda that he should reign during his life, and then the crown to descend to her son, Henry Plantagenet.

STEPHEN, son of Stephen, Count of Blois, and Adela, the fourth daughter of William the Conqueror, was born at Blois in the year 1104.

Henry left, by will, his daughter Matilda heir to all his dominions, without making any mention of her husband Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, and the failure of a male heir to the kingdom of England and duchy of Normandy seemed to leave the succession open, without a rival, to the Empress Matilda, and as Henry had made all his nobles, in both states, swear fealty to her, he supposed they would not keep her from

her hereditary right, or depart from their sworn engagements ; but the irregular manner in which he had acquired the crown himself might have instructed him that neither his English nor his Norman subjects were as yet capable of adhering to a strict rule of government.

Adela, fourth daughter of William the Conqueror, married Stephen, Count of Blois, and had brought him several sons, among whom Stephen and Henry, the two youngest, were invited to England, by the late king. Henry had entered the Church, and was created Abbot of Glastonbury, and afterward Bishop of Winchester. Stephen had, from his uncle's liberality, obtained still more solid advantages, and through the king's influence had married Matilda, daughter of Eustace, Count of Boulogne, who brought him, besides that feudal sovereignty in France, vast property in England, conferred on that family by William. Stephen also acquired by this marriage a new connection with the royal family of England, as Mary, his wife's mother, was sister to David, King of Scotland, and to Matilda, the first wife of Henry I., and mother to the Empress Matilda.

Henry took pleasure in enriching Stephen, and he, in return, professed great attachment to his uncle, and appeared zealous for the succession of Matilda ; when the barons swore fealty to her, he contended to be the first to give her this testimony of his zeal and fidelity. Meanwhile, he continued to cultivate, by every art of popularity, the friendship of the English people, and many virtues with which he seemed to be endowed favored the success of his intentions, and by his bravery, activity, and address, acquired the esteem of the barons.

No sooner had Henry breathed his last, than Stephen, insensible to all the ties of gratitude and fidelity, and blind to danger, gave full rein to his criminal ambition, and trusted that even without any previous intrigue the celerity of his enterprise, and the boldness of his attempt, might overcome the weak attachment which the English and Normans in that age bore to the laws and to the rights of their sovereign. He hastened over to England, and, though the citizens of Dover and Canterbury shut their gates against him, he did not stop until he arrived

at London, where he was immediately proclaimed king by the people.

His next point was to gain the good-will of the clergy, and through them receive the ceremony of the coronation. His brother, the Bishop of Winchester, was useful to him in this respect. He, with the Bishop of Salisbury, applied to the Archbishop of Canterbury, and requested him, in virtue of his office, to give the royal unction to Stephen. The primate refused to perform that ceremony, owing to his allegiance to Matilda, but his opposition was overcome by a dishonorable expedient. Stephen's friends, procuring Hugh Bigod, steward of the household of the late king, to declare that on his deathbed Henry had shown a dissatisfaction with his daughter Matilda, and had expressed his intention of leaving the Count of Boulogne heir to his dominions.

The primate believing, or feigning to believe, Bigod's testimony, anointed Stephen, and put the crown upon his head, December 26, 1135. And from this religious ceremony, that prince, without either hereditary title, or the consent of the nobility or people, was allowed to proceed in the exercise of the sovereign authority. Very few barons attended his coronation, but none opposed it.

Stephen, that he might further secure his tottering throne, passed a charter, in which he made liberal promises to all orders of men; to the clergy, that he would speedily fill all vacant benefices; to the nobility, that he would reduce the royal forests to their ancient boundaries, and correct all encroachments; and to the people, that he would remit the tax of the Danegeld, and restore the laws of King Edward.

The late king had a great treasure at Winchester, which Stephen immediately seized, and used to purchase the assistance of the clergy and nobility; but not trusting to this frail security, invited from Brittany and Flanders numbers of bravoës and disorderly soldiers, with which almost every country in Europe then abounded.

These mercenary troops guarded his throne, by the terrors of the sword. And Stephen, that he might overawe all malcontents by new and additional terrors of religion, procured a

"bull" from Rome, which ratified his title. The Pope, finding he was in possession of the throne, and pleased with an appeal to his authority, very readily granted him his desire.

Matilda and her husband were as unfortunate in Normandy as they were in England. Many Norman barons, moved by hereditary animosity against the house of Anjou, applied to Stephen and offered him possession of their government.

He visited Normandy in 1136, and arranged all differences, concluding a treaty with Geoffrey to continue two years.

The clergy could now hardly be called subjects of the crown, so they added to their oaths of allegiance this condition: that they were only bound so long as the king defended ecclesiastical liberties and supported the discipline of the Church.

The barons, in return for their submission, exacted terms still more destructive to the public peace, as well as of the royal authority. Many of them required the right of fortifying their castles and of putting themselves in a posture of defence, and the king found himself totally unable to refuse his consent.

All England was immediately filled with these fortresses, which the nobles garrisoned either with their vassals or mercenary and licentious soldiers who flocked to them from all quarters. Unbounded rapine was the consequence of this support. Wars between the nobles were carried on with the utmost fury in every quarter; the nobility assumed the right of coining money and of exercising, without appeal, every act of jurisdiction, and the inferior gentry and common people found no security by the laws.

During this dissolution of sovereign authority, the people were obliged, for their own safety, to pay court to some neighboring baron, and purchase his protection.

In 1138, David, King of Scotland, invaded England at the head of a large army to assert the claim of his niece, Matilda, to the crown, which he had sworn to uphold. He advanced on Carlisle and Newcastle, committing the greatest devastations, which enraged the northern noblemen, who otherwise might have been inclined to join him; and the Earls of Albemarle, Piercy, Mowbray, and others assembled a large force, and met the Scots at North Allerton; and on August 22, 1138, the

batle of the Standard was fought. The Scots were defeated, and the king and his son narrowly escaped falling into the hands of the English. The following year a peace was made. This success overawed the malcontents in England, and might have given some stability to the throne, had Stephen not been so elated with his success as to engage in a controversy with the clergy, who were at that time much too powerful for any monarch, and this quarrel, joined to so many other grievances, increased the discontent of the people.

The advantage was taken by the Empress Matilda, and on September 30, 1139, she landed at Arundel, accompanied by her illegitimate brother, Robert, Duke of Gloucester, and a retinue of one hundred and fifty knights. She fixed her residence in that castle, and immediately sent messengers to her partisans in every county of England to take up arms.

The whole country was struck with alarm, and men's minds were agitated in various ways. Those who secretly or openly favored the invader were roused to more than usual activity against the king, while his own friends were terrified.

Stephen invested the castle of Arundel, but, in the most romantic spirit of chivalry, he permitted the empress to pass out and join her brother at Bristol, where he had previously gone, and where her party was now largely augmented.

The war now became general, spreading over the whole kingdom. The castles of the nobility became receptacles for licensed robbers, who, sallying forth day and night, committed excesses everywhere: putting their captives to torture, in order to make them reveal their treasure; sold their persons into slavery, and burnt their houses. Such a state of affairs continued for about two years, Matilda's and Stephen's forces meeting with varied success. They had many fruitless negotiations and treaties of peace, which never interrupted the constant destruction of life and property, until an event occurred which promised to end the war.

The Earl of Chester and his half-brother, William de Roumare, who had been playing fast and loose with both parties, now became partisans of Matilda. They surprised the castle of Lincoln; but the citizens, who were better affected toward

Stephen, called him to their aid. He immediately besieged the castle, in hopes of making himself master of the place, either by assault or famine.

The Earl of Gloucester hastened with an army to the relief of his friends, and Stephen, informed of his approach, met him. A great battle ensued, in which victory fell to Gloucester, and Stephen was taken prisoner, and sent in close custody to Bristol Castle, where at first he was treated with great consideration, but soon after, on some suspicion, was cast into prison and loaded with irons.

Stephen's party was entirely broken up by the captivity of their king, and the barons came in daily from all quarters, and did homage to Matilda. That princess, however, amidst all her prosperity, knew she was not secure of success unless she could gain the confidence of the clergy, and as the conduct of the primate had been of late very ambiguous, and he had shown his intention of rather humbling his brother, the king, than ruining him, she employed every device to gain him to her interests. She had a conference with him at Winchester, and promised him, on oath, that if he would acknowledge her as sovereign, and recognize her title as the sole descendant of the late king, and would again submit to the allegiance which he, as well as the rest of the kingdom, had sworn to her, he should in return be entire master of the government, and, in particular, should at his pleasure dispose of all vacant bishoprics and abbeys.

The Earl of Gloucester, her brother, and others of the leading nobility, became guaranties for the observance of these engagements, and the primate was at last induced to promise his allegiance to her. He then conducted her to the cathedral, and with great solemnity, in the presence of many bishops and abbots, pronounced curses on those who cursed her, poured out blessings on those who blessed her, granted absolution to such as were obedient to her, and excommunicated those who were rebellious.

Matilda, that she might further insure the attachment of the clergy was willing to receive the crown from their hands, and instead of assembling the States of the kingdom, which the

constitution required, she was content that the primate should assemble an ecclesiastical synod, and that her title to the throne should there be acknowledged.

After Easter a great council of prelates was called by the primate, when that unscrupulous churchman boldly denounced his brother, and invoked the assembly to elect a sovereign, and with an amount of arrogance unprecedented, asserted the notorious untruth, that the right of electing a king of England principally belonged to the clergy. He stated that his brother Stephen had been permitted to reign, but before ascending the throne, had seduced them by fair promises of honoring the church, of maintaining the laws, and of reforming abuses; and he was sorry to say he was found wanting in his engagements, and the most wanton disorders were the consequence. That having invoked the divine assistance, he now pronounced Matilda, the only descendant of Henry, their late sovereign, Queen of England. The whole assembly, by their acclamation, or by silence, gave, or seemed to give, their assent to this declaration. The only laymen summoned to this synod or council, which decided the fate of the crown, were a few citizens of London, but they were not allowed to vote or give their opinion, but to submit to the decrees of the council.

By the prudent conduct of the Duke of Gloucester, Matilda's authority appeared to be established, but affairs did not long continue in this situation.

The queen, besides the disadvantage of her sex, which weakened her influence over a turbulent and martial people, was of a passionate, imperious spirit, and did not know how to soften the harshness of a refusal. It was June 24th before the Londoners would consent to acknowledge her as queen. Many parts of the kingdom had then submitted to her government, and she entered London with great state. Her first act was to demand subsidies of the citizens, and when they said their wealth was greatly diminished by the troubled state of the kingdom, she broke forth into ungovernable rage.

The vigilant queen of Stephen, who kept possession of Kent, now approached the city with a numerous force, and by her envoys demanded her husband's freedom, and offered as one

condition, if he were released, that he should renounce the crown, and retire into a monastery, but the queen rejected the petition in a haughty manner. The primate, who had probably never been sincere in his compliance with Matilda's government, availed himself of the dissatisfaction caused by her imperious conduct, and secretly instigated the Londoners in revolt.

A conspiracy was formed to seize the person of the queen, and she saved herself by a precipitate retreat. She fled to Oxford, and then to Winchester, whither the primate, to save appearances, had previously retired; but, having assembled all his retainers, he openly joined his force to that of the citizens of London and to Stephen's mercenary troops; and the combined force besieged the queen at Winchester, who, after being hard pressed by famine, made her escape, but in her flight the Earl of Gloucester fell into the hands of the enemy. The queen, sensible of his worth, consented to his exchange for Stephen on equal terms, and the civil war was again kindled with greater fury than ever.

The Earl of Gloucester, on being released, finding both sides evenly balanced, went over to Normandy, which, during Stephen's captivity, had submitted to the Count of Anjou, and he persuaded Geoffrey to allow his eldest son Henry, a young prince of great promise, to take a journey to England, and appear at the head of his partisans there. This expedition produced nothing decisive.

Stephen took Oxford after a long siege. He was defeated by the Duke of Gloucester at Wilton, and the queen, being harassed with varying fortunes and continued dangers to herself and family, at last retired into Normandy in 1146, and shortly after the Earl of Gloucester died. The war had now raged for years, and the condition of England was most deplorable.

In the year 1148 Prince Henry had attained his sixteenth year, and was desirous of receiving the honor of knighthood. He journeyed to Scotland with a large retinue to receive it from the hands of his granduncle, David, King of Scotland. He remained some time with the king, and made several incursions into England, and by his valor in war and prudent conduct

raised the hopes of his party, and showed signs of those qualities which he afterward displayed when he ascended the throne of England. Soon after his return to Normandy he was, by Matilda's consent, invested in that duchy, and by the death of his father Geoffrey, which happened in the following year, 1150, took possession of Anjou and Maine, and concluded a marriage which brought him a great accession of power, and rendered him extremely formidable to his rival.

Eleanor, the daughter and heir of William, Duke of Guienne and Earl of Poitou, had been married sixteen years to Louis VII., King of France, and had accompanied him on a crusade against the Saracens, but having lost her affection for her husband, and even fallen under suspicion of a liaison with a handsome Saracen, Louis procured a divorce from her, and restored her those provinces which, by her marriage, she had annexed to France.

Young Henry, neither discouraged by the inequality of years nor by the reports of her flirtations, made a successful courtship, and marrying her six weeks after her divorce, in 1152, got possession of all her dominions as her dowry. The lustre which this alliance gave him had such an effect in England that when Stephen, desirous of insuring the crown to his son Eustace, required the Archbishop of Canterbury to anoint that prince as his successor, the primate refused compliance, and made his escape beyond sea to avoid the violence of the king.

In 1153 Prince Henry arrived in England with a considerable force, met and defeated Stephen at Malmesbury; but the leading nobility on both sides interposed to bring about a peace, which was facilitated by the death of Stephen's eldest son Eustace.

By the treaty of Winchester, November 7, 1153, it was agreed that Stephen should remain king of England during his lifetime, and that he should be succeeded by Henry, and that William, Stephen's son, should retain his patrimonial estate acquired by his marriage, or otherwise, before he became king.

Stephen did not survive this treaty a year. His reign was one of the most miserable that England has ever passed through.

Stephen's personal character, allowing for the injustice of his

usurpation, appears not liable to any great exception, and he seems to have been well qualified, had he succeeded to a just title, to have promoted the happiness and prosperity of his subjects. He was possessed of industry, activity, and courage, though not endowed with sound judgment, and never indulged in cruelty or revenge. He died October 25, 1154, in the fiftieth year of his age and nineteenth of his reign, and was succeeded by Henry Plantagenet.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Donald I., Malcolm IV.; France: Louis VI. (the Fat), Louis VII. Emperors of the West: Lothaire II., Conrad III., Frederick I.



THE PLANTAGENETS.

A.D. 1154-1485.

ANJOU, an ancient province of northwestern France, chiefly constituted the present department of Maine-et-Loir. During the Frankish and feudal eras its counts played an important part in European history. The eldest branch of the Anjou family traced its descent to the days of Charles the Bald, in the ninth century.

Among these celebrated counts those of the name of Foulkes or Fulk were most distinguished as crusaders, particularly Fulk V., or Fulk the Black. It is said in his youth he burned a wife at the stake, and led her to her doom decked out in his gayest attire. He afterward waged a bitter war against his son, and exacted from him, when vanquished, a humiliation which men reserved for the deadliest of their foes.

"You are conquered! You are conquered," shouted the father, in fierce exultation, as the son, bridled and saddled like a beast of burden, crawled for pardon to his father's feet. Fearing the end of the world drove Fulk on a pilgrimage to the holy sepulchre; barefoot, and with a halter round his neck, he allowed himself to be scourged with broom-twigs of the *planta*

genista, and from that circumstance assumed the name of Plantagenet. He was succeeded by his son Geoffrey Plantagenet, who married Matilda, only surviving child and heiress of King Henry I. of England, fourth son of William the Conqueror, and widow of Henry V., Emperor of the West.

By this marriage Matilda bore a son, Henry, who became Henry II., King of England, and first of the Plantagenet line.

This rule continued until the year 1485, when the victory of Bosworth Field transferred the crown to the house of Tudor.

The name is now borne by the Duke of Buckingham and Chandos.

Henry II.—A.D. 1154–1189.

Born at Le Mans, Normandy, 1133.

Crowned December 19, 1154.

Married, in 1151, Eleanor, the divorced wife of Louis VII., King of France, daughter of the fifth Duke of Aquitaine, who died June 26, 1202. Issue : William, born 1152 ; died in 1156.

Henry, born 1155, crowned, by command of his father, King of England, July 15, 1170 ; married, 1173, Margaret, daughter of Louis VII., and was again crowned at Winchester ; died 1183.

Richard, successor to the crown.

Geoffrey, Earl of Bretagne, who was accidentally slain in a tournament at Paris, 1186.

John, successor to his brother Richard.

Maud, married Henry V., Duke of Saxony ; died 1189.

Eleanor, married Alfonso VIII., King of Castile ; died 1214.

Joan, married, first, William II., King of Sicily, and second, Raymond, Count of Toulouse ; died September 4, 1195.

HENRY, the first of the Plantagenet kings, was the son of Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, and his wife, the Empress Matilda, heiress and only surviving child of Henry I., fourth son of William the Conqueror.

He was born at Le Mans, in Maine, in the year 1133, and was educated in Normandy and England. He was engaged in the siege of a castle on the frontiers of Normandy when he heard of Stephen's death, and he made it a point of honor not to depart from his enterprise until he had brought it to an issue. He then set out on his journey with his queen, and was received in England on December 8, 1154, with the acclamations of all classes, who swore with pleasure the oath of fealty and obedi-

ence to him, and he was crowned at Westminster Abbey eleven days after.

After the long troubles of the reign of Stephen, it was not without hope of a quiet future that the people of England saw a young prince enter upon the kingly office with an undisputed title.

The personal character of Henry gives a distinctive color to the events of his reign, and especially in his great contest to maintain the supremacy of the civil power over the ecclesiastical. To repair the evils of the reign of Stephen required in the new government the rare union of vigor and moderation. Though a young man of strong passions, Henry held over them the control of a firm will and a commanding intellect. He went steadily to his great work of substituting law and order for violence and confusion.

He brought to the throne a great reputation for talent and courage, and his first acts corresponded with the high idea entertained of his abilities. He immediately dismissed all the mercenaries who had committed such great disorders in the country together with Ypres, their leader, the friend and confidant of Stephen; he revoked all the grants made by his predecessor, even those which necessity extorted from the Empress Matilda; and that princess, who had resigned her rights in favor of Henry, made no opposition to a measure so necessary for supporting the dignity of the crown.

Henry had inherited Anjou and Touraine from his father; Maine and Normandy from his mother; and the seven provinces of the south—Poitou, Saintonge, Auvergne, Perigord, the Limousin, the Angoumois, and Guienne—as a dowry of his wife. The actual domains of Louis VII. were far smaller than his own.

He improved the coinage, which had been debased in the last reign; he was rigorous in the execution of justice, and in the suppression of robbery and violence; and that he might restore authority to the laws, he ordered all the newly erected castles to be demolished, which had proved so many sanctuaries to freebooters and rebels.

The Earl of Albemarle, Mortimer, Roger, son of Milo of



Gloucester, and the Earl of Hereford, were inclined to make some resistance to this order, but the approach of the king with his army soon obliged them to submit.

Everything being restored to full tranquillity in England, Henry applied to the Roman See to give him a dispensation from his oath, that he should resign his French possessions on accession to the throne of England to his brother Geoffrey, which he said he had blindly taken. Nicholas Breakspear, Pope Adrian IV., had just ascended the papal throne—the only Englishman who ever attained that honor—and he was only too glad to grant the formidable king's desire.

Geoffrey was not so easily satisfied, so he assembled an army and took possession of a considerable part of Anjou and Maine.

Henry immediately left for the continent, leaving his kingdom in charge of Robert of Leicester, his great justiciary. He quickly subjected Geoffrey, and gave him a pension to compensate him for the loss of his coronet, when he retired into the province of Nantz, which the inhabitants, who had expelled Count Hoel, their prince, had put into his hands. His French provinces having all returned to their allegiance, Henry did homage to Louis of France for all these vast possessions, and Louis "had reason to tremble," whilst he received Henry's fealty.

On his return to England in 1157, the king, not unnaturally, sought to recover that power which England had lost to Scotland during the reign of Stephen. The counties of Northumberland and Cumberland had passed into the possession of the Scottish crown. Their surrender was demanded, which could not be resisted, and they were given up, and the young king Malcolm did homage to Henry for Lothian.

But there was a part of the British dominions which did not promise so easy a settlement. Wales, during the contest between Stephen and Matilda, had, under brave chieftains, recovered much of its ancient territory from the English, and to assert his authority over the Welsh was now Henry's policy. He marched into North Wales, and from the natural fastnesses of that locality he was brought into great difficulties, and even

danger; his vanguard was put to rout, and his standard-bearer, seized with a panic, threw down the standard and took to flight, exclaiming "The king is slain!" and had not Henry immediately appeared in person and led the troops, the consequences might have proved fatal to the whole army. The Welsh soon after submitted.

Geoffrey, the king's brother, died soon after he had acquired possession of Nantz, and Henry laid claim to the country as heir to his brother, and went over to support his pretensions by force of arms. Conan, Duke of Brittany, claimed that Nantz had been separated lately, by rebellion, from his duchy, to which by right it belonged, and on Geoffrey's death, took possession of the disputed territory.

Lest Louis, King of France, should interfere in the controversy, Henry paid him a visit, and so allured him that an alliance was formed, and they agreed that young Henry, heir to the English throne, should be affianced to Louis's daughter Margaret, then only five years old.

Henry was now secure of not meeting with any interruption from the French king, and advanced with his army into Brittany, and Duke Conan, in despair, delivered Nantz up to him. The Duke of Brittany died about seven years after, and Henry put himself in possession of that duchy also.

In 1159 disputes arose about the title of the county of Toulouse, in which Henry felt himself concerned, through his marriage with Queen Eleanor. He raised an army in that part of Normandy distant from that country, and invaded that province, and after taking Verdun, Castelneau, and other places, he besieged the capital, and was likely to prevail, when King Louis threw himself into the place. Henry was urged to prosecute the siege and take Louis prisoner, but he declared he would not attack a place defended by the king in person, and immediately raised the siege.

He then marched into Normandy, to protect that province against an incursion made by the Count of Driex. War was now openly carried on between the two monarchs, but produced no particular effect. It soon ended in a peace, and Henry returned to England in 1162.

In that year the usurpations of the clergy, which had at first been gradual, were now so marked that Henry was determined to curb them, as he found it became necessary to determine whether he or the clergy, particularly the Archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas à Becket, ruled. From the commencement of his reign he had shown a fixed purpose to repress clerical usurpations, and he was now determined to continue in that purpose. On the death of Theobald, Henry advanced his chancellor, Becket, to that see, as one on whose compliance he could entirely depend.

Thomas à Becket was the first man of English descent who, since the Norman conquest, had risen to any considerable station. He was born of reputable parents, in the city of London, and being endowed with industry and capacity, soon worked his way in the church, until at last he had attained the highest position as well as the favor of the king. But he now became the most austere of churchmen and the most vehement champion of the independence of his order, and placed himself in direct opposition to the king. His first act after his consecration as archbishop was, without consulting the king, to return to his hands the commission of chancellor, pretending that he must thenceforth detach himself from secular affairs, and be solely employed in the exercise of his spiritual functions, but in reality that he might break off all connection with the king, and apprise him that Becket, as Primate of England, was now become an entirely new person. He now wore sackcloth next his skin, and changed it so seldom that it was filled with dirt and vermin. His usual diet was bread, his drink water, which he rendered more unpalatable by the mixture of unsavory herbs and other penances. All men of penetration now saw that he was meditating some great design, and that the ambition and ostentation of his character had turned itself toward a new and more dangerous object. Becket did not wait until Henry should commence his projects against the ecclesiastical power, which he knew had been formed by that prince. He was himself the aggressor, and attempted to overawe the king by the intrepidity and boldness of his actions. He summoned some of the nobility to surrender their baronies, to others he presented them without regard of law.

The king encouraged the nobles to resist, and Becket excommunicated some of them, and though he afterward relieved them from the penalties, he had made enemies who had determined to ruin him.

This was soon brought about, under pretence of the king's love for justice. He summoned Becket and the other bishops to an assembly at Westminster, where he complained of the proceedings of their courts, which, he said, allowed priests who were guilty of great crimes to go unpunished, and for remedy of this he required that the clergy should, both in person and property, be subject, not to the rule of the bishops, but to the ordinary laws.

Becket and the bishops at first absolutely refused compliance, but being threatened with imprisonment they at length gave way, and promised to observe them. Becket, however, soon bitterly repented of what he had done; he looked upon himself as the cause of the weakness of his brethren, and he formally retracted his consent. In consequence another assembly was held at Northampton, to which he was summoned as a criminal, and where he was treated with extreme injustice.

He had some months before sent four knights to the king's court to answer in his name to a complaint from John the Marshal, one of the royal officers, about a suit that was pending in his own court, instead of attending himself, and this was now termed treason. He had, when he became archbishop, been formally released from all claims as to money that had passed through his hands. Yet he was now called on to give an account for the whole term of his chancellorship; sums that the king had given him, and others that he had received for and laid out on the royal castles of which he was keeper, were demanded of him.

For this non-appearance at the court, a fine of £500 was imposed; all his goods were afterward declared forfeited. He was threatened by some of the nobles with death, while others informed him that the king intended to imprison him for life.

He left in the middle of the night and travelled, chiefly by night, until he reached the port of Sandwich, where he remained hid in a church until an opportunity offered of crossing the sea

to Flanders, which he did in an open boat, in the year 1164. He retired into a monastery in Burgundy, where for two years he led a life more austere than any of the monks.

Henry, in the meantime, sent ambassadors both to the Pope and to the King of France, to demand either that the archbishop should be given up to him, or that he should be deprived of his see. Both demands were refused.

The controversy continued for more than six years. At first Becket remained quietly in the Cistercian monastery, but after a time he obtained permission from the Pope to excommunicate some of his chief opponents. Henry, who could not reach him personally, persecuted the Cistercian monks in his own dominions for the offence of their French brethren in affording him a refuge. Becket then went to the King of France, who received him with great honor. Henry on this made war with France, when he was so successful that Louis soon agreed to peace, and seemed inclined to abandon the cause of the archbishop. But Henry having treated with great barbarity some of his revolted subjects of Poitou, whose pardon he had promised in the treaty of peace, the French king gave his support to Becket more warmly than before, and prepared to take up arms in his cause.

The Pope now tried to reconcile the king to the archbishop, and after long negotiations this was effected. The two parties met near Tours. The archbishop's possessions were promised to be restored to him, and at last, after an absence of six years, he came back to Canterbury. He was received by the people and his clergy with transports of joy ; but he had only returned to meet his death.

Just before his reconciliation with the king, a new cause of quarrel had arisen. It had always been regarded as the privilege of the Archbishop of Canterbury to crown the king, as it is now, but Henry, under the idea of securing his succession to the throne, had chosen to have his eldest son crowned during Becket's exile, and by his command the Archbishop of York, the Bishops of London, Salisbury, Worcester, and other prelates performed the ceremony. Becket excommunicated them, and he laid a like penalty on two brothers, Ranulf and Robert

de Broc, who had had charge of the estates of his see during his absence. The Brocs were prompt to revenge themselves. They stopped his provisions, beat his servants, maimed his cattle, killed his deer, and even threatened his life, but he remained immovable, and would not take any measures of defence.

The bishops in the meantime passed over to Normandy to the king, and entreated his protection.

Henry fell into a violent rage, and demanded what was to be done. The Archbishop of York, who had all through his life been a rival of Becket, replied: "As long as Thomas lives, my lord king, you will have no peace in your kingdom." The king then exclaimed "How long am I to be insulted by this upstart priest, who owes all to me; a fellow who came to court on a lame horse without a saddle, now holds the throne, and the knights who eat my bread look on!"

It was soon decided that the justiciary of Normandy and two other nobles should be sent to England to seize the archbishop. But four of Henry's knights had secretly left the court while the debate was going on, without any direct authority from the king, but thinking themselves well acquainted with his real wishes.

They met at Saltwood Castle, in Kent, where Ranulf de Broc resided, and held a consultation with him, the result of which was that on the next morning, December 29, 1170, the whole party set forth for Canterbury. The intention was not kill the archbishop, but to make him a prisoner.

After an angry interview with him, they fiercely required of him to recall his sentences. He refused, and they then attempted to carry him away. Becket applied violent language, shook himself free from one, and threw another on the floor. They then attacked him with their swords, and laid him dead.

The murderers then plundered the palace of plate and money, seized the best horses in the stable, and fled. The monks watched the body all night, and on the next day, as the Brocs threatened to drag it about the city and hang it upon a gibbet, they hastily buried it in the crypt. There it remained for fifty

years, until the grandson of Henry removed it to a splendid shrine behind the high altar of the cathedral.

The news of the murder caused great alarm, if not grief, to Henry. He knew he would be universally blamed for having caused it, and feared the Pope would excommunicate him, and absolve his subjects from their allegiance. He shut himself up from the light of day, and refused any nourishment for three days.

Henry's first act afterward was to send ambassadors to the Pope to declare his innocence, and commissioners were appointed to inquire into the facts of the case. Two years afterward Henry made submission to the Pope, taking upon himself several duties, which he bound himself to accomplish.

In 1171 he undertook the conquest of Ireland, the expedition being approved by the Pope, and after an easy and peaceable submission of that people, returned to England in 1172, and received the grant of that country from Pope Adrian.

Henry, now freed from the dangerous controversy with the ecclesiastics and with the See of Rome, seemed to have reached the pinnacle of human grandeur, and was happy in his family and government. A numerous progeny of sons and daughters gave lustre and authority to his crown, and prevented the dangers of a disputed succession, and his precautions in establishing the several branches of his family seemed calculated to prevent jealousy among the brothers. He appointed Henry, his eldest son, to be his successor in the kingdom of England, the duchy of Normandy, and counties of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine, territories which lay contiguous to each other, and by that means lent to each other mutual assistance.

Richard, his second son, was invested with the duchy of Guienne and county of Poitou.

Geoffrey, his third son, inherited by right of his wife, the duchy of Brittany, and the new conquest of Ireland was destined for the appanage of his fourth son, John.

According to a promise made the Pope and the King of France, Henry permitted his eldest son, Prince Henry, and his wife Margaret, to be crowned in 1170, and afterward to pay a visit to his father-in-law at Paris, who took the opportunity of

instilling ambitious sentiments into the mind of the young prince. It had been the constant practice of France, ever since the accession of the Capetian line, to crown the son during the lifetime of the father, without conferring on him any present participation in royalty. Louis persuaded his son-in-law that by this ceremony, which at that time was deemed so important, he had acquired a title to the sovereignty, and that the king, his father, could not, without injustice, exclude him from immediate possession of the whole, or at least a portion, of his dominions.

In consequence of these extravagant ideas, young Henry, on his return, desired the king to resign to him either the crown of England or the duchy of Normandy, and showed great discontent on his refusal. He spoke in the most undutiful terms of his father, and soon after made his escape to Paris, where he was supported and protected by Louis.

While Henry was alarmed by this incident, he received intelligence of new misfortunes, which affected him in a sensible manner. Queen Eleanor, who had disgusted her first husband by her gallantries, was no less offensive to her second by her jealousy, and now carried to extreme every circumstance of female weakness, and by her discontents persuaded her two younger sons, Richard and Geoffrey, that they also were entitled to the present possession of the territories assigned to them, and advised them also to fly to the court of France, and she was in the act of going there, disguised in man's apparel, when she was seized by her husband's order, and placed in confinement.

Thus Europe saw with astonishment the best and most indulgent of parents at war with his whole family: three boys, scarcely arrived at maturity, requiring a great monarch, in the full vigor of his maturity and height of his reputation, to dethrone himself in their favor, and several princes not ashamed to support them in their absurd demand. Henry, reduced to this disagreeable situation, had recourse to the See of Rome. Though sensible of the danger, he applied to the Pope, as his supreme lord, to excommunicate his enemies, and by this censure reduce his undutiful children to obedience.

Alexander the Pope, well pleased to exert his power, issued the "bull" required of him, but Henry soon found that these

spiritual weapons had not the same power as when employed in spiritual warfare, and that the clergy were negligent in supporting a sentence in which they were not concerned. The king, after taking this humiliating course, was obliged to have recourse to arms.

To avert the severance of his vast dominions, Henry had need of all his great qualities. Louis of France bound himself, with the usual oaths, to aid the young Henry in his attempt to possess England, and young Henry vowed never to make peace with his father unless Louis should give consent. There were two other princes who became parties to this league—William, King of Scotland, and Philip, Earl of Flanders. In England there were discontented barons, whose oppressions were checked by a sovereign who had strenuously asserted the very disagreeable principle of legal justice.

War was now declared between France and England. Henry collected an army of twenty thousand men, soldiers of fortune, adventurers who were ready to support any cause that afforded pay and plunder.

The allied enemies of the king entered Normandy, but were repulsed. The Scots made incursions upon the north of England, but they were driven back by Richard de Lacy, the justiciary, and Humphrey de Bohun, the Lord High Constable, who ravaged Lothian and burned Berwick. Meanwhile the Earl of Leicester, who had taken part against the king, had brought over a large body of Flemings, and that force was joined by the Earl of Norfolk, near St. Edmundsbury, where they were met by the king's army, which had returned triumphantly from Scotland. The banner of St. Edmund was carried in front of the royal army, and at a marshy place called Fornham, on the bank of the river, the rebel forces were entirely defeated, and the Earl of Leicester and his countess were taken prisoners.

The two kings met, with their armies, between Trie and Gisors, and Henry had the mortification of seeing his three sons in the retinue of his mortal enemy. The two armies came to an action near Dol, and Henry was victorious, and the rebels in Brittany were entirely defeated.

The insurrectionary standard was raised in the northern, midland, and eastern counties of England. A fleet was ready at Gravelines to bring over young Henry, but there was one who, whilst all around him seemed crumbling into ruins, stood as unshaken as in the days of his most joyous security. On July 7, 1174, the king took ship and crossed the channel in a heavy storm. He was more than usually solemn during the difficult voyage. He had baffled his enemies in France and had put his frontiers there in a state of defence, and hearing of the disturbance in England, determined by his presence to overawe the malcontents.

He landed at Southampton, and, throwing the influence of superstition over the minds of the people, hastened to Canterbury to make atonement and do penance to the ashes of Becket buried there, and tender his submission to his dead enemy, and as he saw the cathedral towers looming in the distance, he alighted and walked in penitential garb, barefoot, to the city, to kneel at the tomb of a Becket in deep humiliation, and remained fasting and in prayer during the whole day, and submitted to be scourged by the monks. The following day he received absolution and departed for London, where he first heard of the defeat of the Scots.

On August 10, 1175, William, King of Scotland, was ransomed at the expense of doing homage to Henry for his kingdom, and the delivery of some of his principal fortresses to England.

Henry having, contrary to expectation, extricated himself with honor from a situation in which his throne was endangered, employed himself for several years in the administration of justice, in the execution of the laws, and guarding against convulsions such as had just passed over the kingdom.

Prince Henry was, after a time, reconciled to his father, and they lived in apparent cordiality together. In the year 1183 the king commanded his son Richard to do homage to his elder brother for Aquitaine. He refused, and young Henry entered Richard's territory with an army. The father interposed and apparently reconciled the brothers; but new causes of quarrel arose, and then Henry and Geoffrey rebelled against the king.

Being about to give battle to his father, young Henry fell ill and then became penitent.

The king, always forgiving, sent him a ring as a token of his love, and the unhappy young man died, pressing the token to his lips, at Martel Castle, near Turenne, on June 11, 1183, from the effects of fever, leaving no issue, in the twenty-eighth year of his age.

By his death Richard became heir to the throne, and the king intended that John, his youngest and favorite son, should inherit Guienne, but Richard refused his consent and fled into the duchy.

Geoffrey now demanded that Anjou should be added to his dominions, and on meeting with a refusal fled to the court of France and levied an army against his father, but the king was soon freed from this danger by the death of that young prince, who was killed in a tournament in Paris in the autumn of 1186.

In the year 1189, at the instigation of Philip, King of France, Richard rebelled against his father, and demanded that he should be crowned king of England, that he should be invested with all his transmarine dominions, and should immediately espouse Alice, sister of King Philip, to whom he had been previously affianced, and who had already arrived in England.

Henry, having before experienced such fatal effects both from the crowning of his eldest son and from that prince's alliance with the royal family of France, rejected these terms, and Richard, in consequence of his secret agreement with Philip, revolted from him, did homage to the King of France for all his dominions which Henry held of that crown, and received investitures as if he had already become the lawful possessor.

Henry was now obliged to defend his possessions by arms, and engage in a war with France.

The quarrel arose in consequence of a broken engagement. Henry had, twenty years before, contracted a marriage for his son Richard with the Princess Alice, sister of the King of France, then a mere child, and had got possession of a large district as her dower. The princess conducted herself in such a manner that the king, when she grew up, refused to allow Richard to take her for his wife; but Henry, in spite of this,

kept possession of her lands. Her brother claimed them from him. Richard joined in the demand, and, as he was a vassal of the King of France, was called upon to take up arms in his cause. Henry was at length attacked by the King of France and his own son, was driven from Touraine by them, and was soon after obliged to sue for peace, which he only obtained by the payment of a large sum of money, and giving up the princess's lands.

Thus foiled in his projects, Henry returned to the Castle of Chinon, where a new grief awaited him. He had agreed to pardon all who had conspired against him, and he was struck to the heart on finding the name of his youngest son, John, amongst them. It threw him into a lingering fever, of which he died, on July 6, 1189, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, and thirty-fifth of his reign.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Malcolm IV. and William the Lion; France: Louis VII. and Philip II.; Emperor of the West: Frederick I.

Richard I. (Cœur de Lion)—A.D. 1189-1199.

Born at Oxford, September, 1157.

Crowned September 3, 1189, and again April 17, 1194.

Married, May 12, 1191, Berengaria, daughter of Sanchez the Wise, King of Navarre. No issue.

Died April 6, 1199, being slain by an arrow from the Castle of Chalus, in Limosin, which he had invested.

Buried at Fontevraud.

Succeeded by his brother John.

RICHARD, surnamed Cœur de Lion, or the Lion-hearted, second king of England of the Plantagenet line, was third son of Henry II. and his wife Eleanor of Aquitaine, and great-grandson, in the female line, of Henry I. He was born at Oxford, September 13, 1157. He was noted in his youth for rash valor and a turbulent disposition, qualities which he shared with his brothers Henry and Geoffrey. He soon became celebrated for his proficiency in arms, and his fondness for poetry and music.

In 1169 he received the duchy of Aquitaine, by the treaty of

Montrenil, under the supremacy of Louis VII., King of France, to whose youngest daughter, Alice, he was betrothed. Before he had completed his sixteenth year he engaged with his brothers, Henry and Geoffrey, in a revolt against his father and king, and fled to France, where he was knighted by Louis, but soon after surrendered to his father and was forgiven. He was then known as the Count of Poitou, and claimed the dukedom of Aquitaine, which was ceded to him by his father.

By his father's orders he entered upon a successful war against the Count of Toulouse, and after he had taken the cross in the third crusade, continued the war, in spite of his vow, to a successful issue.

Believing that the king was going to exclude him from the succession, in favor of his younger brother, John, Richard joined King Philip in a contest against his father, and did homage to France for his English territories in that country. In the war that followed Philip and Richard were victorious, which ended in King Henry's death. Richard was present at his father's burial, and was greatly affected, and to make amends for his undutiful conduct toward him, he got absolution for his disobedience, and gave his friendship to all the existing ministers of the late king, who had vigorously opposed all his enterprises and rebellions, and those who had seconded his rebellions were disgraced.

His first act on ascending the throne, July 6, 1189, was to send orders to England for the release of his mother, the queen-dowager, from her long confinement, and he entrusted her with the government of the kingdom until his arrival there.

His bounty to his brother John was profuse and imprudent, bestowing upon him the province of Montaigne, in Normandy, six earldoms in England, and a pension of four thousand marks a year. On July 20th Richard took possession of the duchy of Normandy, where he remained a short time and then left for England, and on September 3, 1189, was crowned at Westminster with great splendor. He swore to observe peace, honor, and reverence toward the holy church, and to exercise true justice and equity to the people committed to his charge.

Richard returned to Normandy on December 11th, leaving William de Longchamp guardian of the realm.

The king, impelled more by the love of military glory than by superstition, acted from the beginning of his reign as if the sole purpose of his government had been the relief of the Holy Land, and the recovery of Jerusalem from the Saracens; his zeal being communicated to his subjects, broke out in London shortly after his coronation, and all the military and turbulent spirits flocked about his person, and were impatient to distinguish themselves against the infidels in Asia, where he was invited by the King of France, who was now ready to embark.

The French and English kings now exchanged promises of mutual friendship, and pledged their faith one to the other not to invade the other's dominions during the crusade, and exchanged the oaths of all their barons and bishops to the same effect, and subjected themselves to the penalty of interdicts and excommunications if they should ever violate the solemn engagement.

Large bodies of crusaders were gathering in England; and, as they marched to the coast for embarkation they exhibited their Christian spirit by inciting the people to plunder and murder the Jews.

At York this persecuted race exhibited a sublime heroism. A body of armed men entered the city, and commenced their work of plunder and massacre by attacking the house of a Jew who had perished in the riot of London. All the Jews of York then claimed shelter in the castle; they were admitted to the number of five hundred. The governor went away, and upon his return the Jews, alarmed for their safety, refused to admit him. The castle was attacked on all sides, and ransoms were refused. Then the desperate race, all except a few, put their wives and children to death and stabbed each other, that they might not fall into the hands of their cruel enemies. The few who shrunk from this terrible self-sacrifice were murdered.

Under such auspices the third crusade commenced, and to find the means the king raised money in every conceivable way. In his father's treasury he found one hundred thousand marks; but this was a small sum for his extravagant purposes. He put

up the crown demesnes for sale; he sold the public offices; he sold earldoms; he sold the claim which Henry had asserted to the right of homage for the crown of Scotland. He had no shame in thus degrading the king for the ambition of the crusader. "I would sell London if I could find a purchaser," he exclaimed. Richard's chamber was a market-place, in which all that the king could bestow, or could be derived from the crown, was disposed of to the highest bidder.

In the midsummer of 1190 the two kings set out on their expedition. Richard proceeded from Tours, Philip from Paris. They met at Vezelay, and thence marched to Lyons, and the tents of the associated armies were pitched on the banks of the Rhône. The leaders and their followers here separated, and Richard took the road to Marseilles; his fleet had not appeared.

After a time Richard put to sea, and, from stress of weather, had to take shelter in Messina, where he found the King of France and his army had already arrived. Here they were detained all the winter, which led to much trouble. Richard became involved in a quarrel with the King of Sicily, whose side the French king favored.

While there Richard freed himself from his betrothal to the Princess Alice, Philip's sister, stating that he was able to produce convincing proof of her infidelity, and even to her having borne a child to his father Henry, but chose to wrap up the dishonor in silence, to which Philip was obliged to consent.

The King of Naples and Sicily was then William II., who had married Joan, Richard's sister. Her mother, Queen Eleanor, was now expected at Messina, and with her the Princess Berengaria, daughter of Sanchez, King of Navarre, with whom Richard was already enamored, and only waited her arrival to continue his expedition. When they joined him he separated his fleet into two squadrons, and set forward on his expedition, Queen Eleanor remaining, but Joan, his sister, and Berengaria accompanied him on his journey.

The English fleet on leaving Messina met with a furious tempest, and the ship on which the two princesses embarked was driven on the coast of Cyprus, with several others of the squadron, and their crews inhospitably treated and cast into pri-

son by Comnenus, ruler of the island, who endeavored to get possession of the person of Berengaria. But Richard, who arrived soon after, took ample vengeance on him for the injury. He disembarked his troops, defeated the tyrant, who opposed his landing, entered his capital by storm, and obliged Comnenus to surrender, and cast him into prison. On May 12, 1191, Richard married Berengaria at Lymasol.

He set sail from Cyprus on June 5, 1191. A year had nearly passed since he and Philip had met on the plains of Vezelay. For the past two years Acre had been in vain besieged by the Christian host.

On his voyage he fell in with an enormous galley, carrying ammunition and stores for the relief of Acre. As his smaller vessels attacked the great Saracen ship, the Greek fire, that terrible liquid flame which was unknown to Richard's men, was poured down upon them from the high deck, and they would have been beaten off, but for Richard's threat—"I will crucify all my soldiers if she is not taken." The vessel, with several hundred men, was at length sunk, and all the crew lost.

On his arrival he found Philip, who had already commenced the siege of Acre, and the rivalry which defeated the object of the crusade soon broke out.

The two kings immediately decided on their plan of operations: when the French monarch attacked the city, the English guarded the trenches; the next day the order was reversed. The emulation between these rival kings and rival nations produced extraordinary acts of valor. Richard, in particular, animated with a more perceptible courage than Philip, and more agreeable to the romantic of that age, drew to himself general admiration, and acquired a great and splendid reputation; but the harmony was of short duration, and occasions of discord soon arose between these jealous and haughty princes.

A faction was now formed as to which of two families were the rightful titular claimants to the kingdom of Jerusalem.

The family of Baldwin, which had first been placed on the throne of Jerusalem, ended in a female. Fulk, Count of Anjou, grandfather to Henry II. of England, married the heiress of that kingdom, and transmitted his title to the younger

branches of his family, and Guy de Lusignan represented that faction, as the husband of Sybilla, the eldest daughter. Conrad, Marquis of Montferrat, the husband of Isabella, a younger sister, represented the other faction. Philip favored the latter, while Richard supported De Lusignan.

Philip wanted to assault Acre immediately, to which Richard objected, as all his troops had not arrived, and he was himself suffering from the plague then raging in the Christian camp.

During his illness Richard is said to have received many courtesies from the enemy, the Sultan Saladin. He slowly recovered, and the siege was prosecuted with vigor. Every endeavor on the part of Saladin to relieve the place failed.

On July 12, 1191, after long negotiations, it was agreed that Acre should be surrendered, stipulating for their lives, promising to return all Christian prisoners and to deliver up the wood of the true cross; and that a certain portion of the garrison should be left as hostages for the due performance of the capitulation. The Turks were also to pay a large sum of money.

During the siege the loss of life was enormous, three hundred thousand Christians having perished from the time of the commencement to the surrender of the city.

Philip of France, after the capture of Acre, resolved to return home, being disgusted with the ascendancy assumed and acquired by Richard, and having views of advantages he might reap by his presence in Europe, and he thought the subtlety of the fox might be as effectual as the rage of the lion. He therefore declared his intention of immediately returning to France. He left with Richard ten thousand of his troops, and renewed his oath never to commence hostilities against him. But he had no sooner reached Rome, than he applied to the Pope to be absolved from his vow, which was denied him.

On August 20th, Richard caused his Saracen prisoners, to the number of five thousand, to be butchered, because the terms of the surrender of Acre had not been fulfilled. The Saracens retaliated upon the Christians by a like cruelty. The next day he commenced his march toward Jerusalem. He defeated the Saracens at Arsuf on September 7th, and took Jaffa, and after

great opposition from his associates, proceeded with a portion of his force to attempt the siege of Ascalon, in order to prepare the way to Jerusalem, and where he was joined by most of the French force.

Saladin purposed to intercept their passage, and placed himself on the road with an army of three hundred thousand men. On this occasion was fought one of the greatest battles of the age. The right and left lines, commanded by the Dukes de Avasnes and Burgundy, were broken and defeated early in the day, when Richard, commanding the main body, restored the battle, attacked the enemy with intrepidity and presence of mind, performed the part of both a consummate general and gallant soldier, and not only gave his two wings leisure to recover from their confusion, but obtained a complete victory over the enemy, of whom forty thousand are said to have perished on the field.

Ascalon soon after fell into the hands of the Christians. Other sieges were carried on with success, and Richard was even able to advance in sight of Jerusalem, the object of all his thoughts, when he had the mortification to find that he must abandon all hopes of immediate success, and put a stop to his career of victory.

The Crusaders, now trusting to the immediate assistance of heaven, set nothing before their eyes but fame and victory in this world, and a crown of glory in the next, and their long absence from home, fatigue, disease, want, and the variety of incidents that attend war, had gradually abated their fury, which nothing was now able to withstand, and every one except the King of England expressed a desire of quickly returning home.

The news from England, too, required that he also should return there; still he adhered to the purpose of the crusade, and made arrangements to proceed to Jerusalem, but Saladin had so fortified that city that it was considered impregnable.

Richard returned to Acre in July, 1192, and was about to return to England when he heard that Jaffa was in danger of falling into the hands of the Saracens. Hastening to its relief, at the head of a small force, he defeated Saladin and afterward defended the place against another attack by the Saracens.

A truce soon followed, and Richard was then informed that his brother John was playing him false—that, as soon as he was on his way to Palestine, John perambulated the kingdom, courting popularity, and had received homage from the people.

Richard had entrusted him with no authority, but had placed the government in the hands of William de Longchamps, the chancellor. He therefore left Acre in October for England, and was shipwrecked near Aquileia, in the Adriatic. He wore the dress of a pilgrim, but the lavishness of the king was so little in keeping with his assumed character that his real rank was soon suspected. The impatient adventurer, with a single attendant, rode day and night till he arrived in the neighborhood of Vienna. He rested at a small village whilst his companion went out to buy food. The person of this attendant was known to one who had been with the Duke of Austria in Palestine, and this knowledge led to the captivity of Richard.

Leopold, Duke of Austria, whose banner he had cast down at Acre, was brother-in-law to Comnenus of Cyprus. His mean soul had the gratification of a cowardly revenge, and he sent Richard a prisoner to the Castle of Tyernsteign. The Emperor, Henry VI., also considered Richard his enemy, and sent messengers to the Duke and required the royal captive to be delivered up to him, and promised a large sum of money for the service.

Thus the king of England, who had filled the whole world with his renown, found himself, during the most critical state of his affairs, confined in a dungeon and loaded with irons in the heart of Germany, and entirely at the mercy of his enemies, and where he suffered every kind of insult and indignity.

The English Council were astonished at receiving this fatal intelligence, which had been made known by a letter from the emperor to the King of France. In England the people were faithful to their captive king, and John was now in open hostility to his brother.

The queen-dowager wrote frequent letters to the Pope exclaiming against the insult to her son, and representing the impiety of detaining in prison the most illustrious prince that yet carried the banner of the cross.

The King of France now prepared to take every advantage of

Richard's imprisonment. He immediately employed every means of force and intrigue against the person and dominions of his rival. He made the emperor the largest offers if he would deliver the royal prisoner into his hands, or at least detain him in perpetual captivity.

But the most successful negotiation was with Prince John, who, forgetting every tie of brother, sovereign, and benefactor, thought of nothing but his own advantage. That traitor, on the first invitation from the court of France, left England immediately and had a conference with Philip, and then and there made a treaty, the object of which was the perpetual ruin of his unfortunate brother.

He stipulated to deliver into Philip's hands a large part of Normandy, and received in return the investiture of all Richard's transmarine dominions, and, it is said, did homage to Philip for the crown of England.

In 1192, in consequence of this treaty, Philip invaded Normandy, and by the treachery of John's emissaries made himself master of many fortresses without opposition. Happily the Earl of Leicester arrived at this critical moment.

That gallant nobleman, who had acquired great honor during the crusade, and who had been more fortunate than his master the king in getting a safe passage home, took upon himself the command at Rouen, and by his exertions infused courage into the dismayed Normans.

Philip was thus repulsed in every attack, and he consented to a truce with the English regency by the payment of twenty thousand marks, and had four castles delivered up to him as security for the payment. Immediately after this treaty Prince John sailed for England with a band of mercenaries, and proclaimed that the king had died in prison; but the prelates and barons were firm, and the schemes of John were overthrown; but he had succeeded in making himself master of the castles of Windsor and Wallingford. Measures were taken to oppose and subdue him, and after some fruitless efforts he was glad to conclude a truce with the barons who opposed him, and soon thought it prudent to return to France, where he openly avowed his alliance with Philip.

Meanwhile the high spirit of Richard suffered in prison. The emperor treated him with great severity, to make him submit to the payment of a large ransom. He was even produced before the Diet of the empire at Worms, and was accused by Henry of the murder of Conrad Montferrat, and various crimes and misdemeanors.

Richard, whose spirit was not broken by his misfortune, answered that although his dignity exempted him from answering before any tribunal except that of heaven, yet, for the sake of his reputation, he would condescend to justify his conduct before that great assembly. After reciting all the charges, he apologized to the Duke of Austria, saying that if he had at any time been wanting in civility to him he had already been sufficiently punished. After thus deigning to apologize for his conduct, he burst out in indignation at the cruel treatment he had met with; that he, the champion of the cross, still wearing that honorable badge, after expending the blood and treasure of his subjects in the common cause of Christianity, should be intercepted by Christian princes on his return to his own country, thrown into a dungeon, loaded with irons, and be obliged to plead his own cause, as if he were a subject and a malefactor, and, what he still more regretted, be thereby prevented from making preparations for a new crusade.

The spirit and eloquence of Richard made such an impression on the German princes that they loudly exclaimed against the conduct of the emperor, and the Pope, now threatening him with excommunication if he detained Richard longer, he found it would be impracticable to hold him or to execute the base purposes of the King of France or Prince John of England. He therefore concluded a treaty with Richard for his ransom, and agreed to restore him to liberty on the payment of one hundred and fifty thousand marks, of which one hundred thousand were to be paid before he received his freedom, and sixty hostages delivered for the remainder.

The captivity of the Superior Lord was one of the cases provided for by the feudal tenures, and all the vassals were, in that event, obliged to give aid for his ransom. Twenty marks were therefore levied on each knight's fee in England. This

amount came in slowly, and was not sufficient for the purpose, but the zeal of the people readily supplied the remainder. The church melted down their plate, the bishops and nobles paid a fourth of their yearly rents, and the parochial clergy contributed a tenth of their tithes. The requisite sum being thus collected, Queen Eleanor and Walter, Archbishop of Rouen, set out with it for Germany, on the 4th of February, 1194, paid the money to the emperor at Mentz, and delivered him hostages for the remainder, thus freeing Richard from captivity.

Even after the payment of the money and the departure of Richard, the emperor gave orders that he should be pursued and arrested. But the king, making all haste, had already embarked at the mouth of the Scheldt, and was out of sight of land when the messenger reached Antwerp.

The joy of the English was great on the return of their king, who had suffered so much and gained such glory. Richard landed at Sandwich on the 20th of March, 1194. On the twenty-eighth of the same month the Castle of Nottingham, which was held by men-at-arms in the interest of John, surrendered to the king. The remainder of that month was employed in fighting for the castles occupied by the creatures of his brother John.

On the 17th of April he ordered himself to be crowned anew, which ceremony was performed at Winchester, as if he intended to reinstate himself upon his throne, and to wipe out the ignominy of his captivity.

He called for a judgment against John, who was cited to appear within forty days to answer or forfeit all right to the kingdom, on the charge that he had broken his fealty to the king, taken possession of his castles, wasted his lands, and made a treaty with his enemy the King of France. John not appearing, he was condemned, and he then dispossessed certain barons of their baronies and put them up for sale to the highest bidders.

On the 2d of May, Richard, being only two months in England, accompanied by his mother, Queen Eleanor, left Portsmouth for Normandy. He took an army with him, being im-

patient to make war upon Philip and to revenge himself for the many injuries he had received from that monarch.

For the next two years, Richard remained in France, where he carried on almost constant war against Philip, in which he won brilliant successes, but they did not result in any permanent good. During this war John deserted from Philip, threw himself at Richard's feet, and craved pardon for his offences, and by the intercession of Queen Eleanor was again received into favor.

In 1196 a truce was declared between Richard and Philip, which was soon broken, but was renewed for five years. In 1199 war again broke out, but the mediation of the Cardinal of St. Mary, the Pope's legate, accommodated the difference.

To enable the king to carry on the war for five years, the exactions and privations of his English subjects were very great. The modes by which his ministers raised the money appear to combine the attributes of the tyrant and the swindler. The mean qualities of his brother John excites no surprise. In the characters of these two sons of Henry II. there were striking points of resemblance as well as of difference. The last scene of Richard's life is an epitome of his qualities. He perished, not fighting for a kingdom, but for a paltry treasure which one of his barons had discovered on his estate; the royal right to treasure so found was claimed by the king.

The Viscount of Limoges refused to surrender the gold and silver, though he offered a large portion to Richard, who accordingly laid siege to the viscount's castle of Chalus, and would allow no conditional surrender. They asked for safety of life and limb, but the king swore that since he had taken the pains to come there and besiege the place in person, he would take it by force and hang every one of them. Accordingly the knights and men-at-arms returned to the castle in sorrow and confusion, and prepared to make defence. Reconnoitering the fortress on March 28, 1199, Richard was wounded in the arm by an arrow aimed by Bertrand de Gurdun. The king immediately gave orders for the assault, took the place, and hanged every one of the defenders, except the youth who had wounded him.

In those days of rude surgery the barbed iron head of the

arrow could not be extracted from the flesh without the limb being dreadfully mangled. For twelve days Richard suffered the agonies of his wound, and saw at last that death was approaching. He bequeathed the kingdom of England and all his other dominions to John. He ordered a fourth of his treasures to be distributed among his servants and the poor. He then ordered Bertrand de Gurdun, who had wounded him to come into his presence, and said to him, "What harm have I done to you that you have killed me?" On which he made answer: "You slew my father and two brothers with your own hand, and you intended now to kill me; therefore take any revenge on me you may think fit, I will readily endure the greatest torments you can devise, so long as you have met with your end, after having inflicted evils so many and so great upon the world." The king ordered him to be released, and said: "I forgive you my death."

This part of the dying king's wish was disregarded. Marchades, an hireling soldier, after Richard's death, flayed young De Gurdun alive and then hanged him.

Gangrene now set in, and, on April 6, 1199, Richard died, in the forty-second year of his age, and the tenth of his reign.

He left no legitimate children, and his queen, Berengaria, who survived him many years, never visited England.

The most shining part of Richard's character was his military career. He was a representative prince of the age of chivalry. Having, beyond the accident of birth and inheritance, little connection with England, he was ignorant of the language, and only spent six months in the country during his reign, the most of his time being passed in the provinces of southern France. He was distinguished by all his good as well as his bad qualities. He was open, frank, generous, sincere, and brave; he was revengeful, domineering, ambitious, haughty, and cruel. He was better calculated to dazzle men by the splendor of his enterprises than to promote their happiness or his own grandeur by a sound and well-regulated policy.

He was succeeded by his brother John.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: William; France: Philip II.; Emperors of the West: Frederick I., Henry VI.

John (Lackland)—A.D. 1199-1216.

Born at Oxford, December 24, 1166.

Crowned May 27, 1199.

Married, first, Isabel, daughter and heiress of William, Earl of Gloucester, from whom he was divorced. Second, Isabella, daughter and heiress of Aymer Taillefer, Count of Angoulême, by whom she had issue :

Henry, his successor, born October 1, 1207.

Richard, born January 6, 1209 ; created Earl of Cornwall, and elected, in 1256, King of the Romans ; died 1272.

Joan, married, 1221, Alexander II., King of Scotland.

Eleanor, married William, Earl of Pembroke.

Isabella, married, 1235, to Frederick II., Emperor of the West.

Died at Newark, October 19, 1216. Buried at Worcester Cathedral.

JOHN—surnamed “Lackland”—from being a portionless son, was the youngest son of King Henry II. and his queen, Eleanor of Aquitaine.

In his eleventh year he was declared Lord of Ireland, and when he reached the age of eighteen he was sent there to take on himself the duties of the office ; but he and his gay young companions behaved so offensively to the native chiefs, and his conduct was so imprudent that he became an object of universal abhorrence, and his father was compelled to recall him to England at the close of the year. His marriage with Alice, daughter of the Count of Savoy, was negotiated for, but her early death prevented it.

He was his father's favorite son, but he joined in frequent rebellions against him, and he is accused of being the cause of Henry's death, when he was told that John's name stood first on the list of those barons who joined Philip of France against him. Richard, his elder brother, and his father's successor to the crown, bestowed large possessions on him, but that did not prevent John from rebelling against him. Richard, when he entered on the holy war, declared his nephew, Arthur, Duke of Brittany, his successor, and, by a formal deed, set aside the title of his brother John in Arthur's favor, as he was the son of Geoffrey, John's elder brother. But John soon gained the ascendent in the English ministry by expelling Longchamp, the chancellor, and he brought over all the barons to swear that

they would maintain his right to the succession, and Richard, on his return, took no steps toward restoring or securing the succession he had first established; he was even careful by his last will to declare his brother John heir to all his dominions. Arthur was then only twelve years of age, and his uncle, the king, may have thought him too young to assert his claim against John and his faction.

The authority of a testament was great in that age, and John had reason to hope that this title would ensure him the succession.

But the King of France, who desired only to embarrass John and dismember his dominions, embraced the cause of the young Duke of Brittany, took him under his protection, and sent him to Paris to be educated.

In this emergency John hastened to establish his authority, and after sending his mother, Queen Eleanor, to Poitou and Guienne, where her right was incontestable and readily acknowledged, he hurried to Rouen, and having secured the duchy of Normandy, passed over to England without loss of time.

The Archbishop of Canterbury, the Earl of Pembroke, and Fitz-Peter, the justiciary, were already engaged on his side, and the submission or acquiescence of all the other barons put him, without opposition, in possession of the throne.

He was crowned at Westminster, May 27, 1199, and shortly after returned to France in order to conduct a war against Philip, and to recover his revolted provinces from his nephew Arthur. An expensive war ensued, but the general of Prince Arthur's forces, finding that Philip was acting for his own interests, effected a reconciliation between John and Arthur.

The uncle then tried to make away with his nephew, who made his escape and fled with his mother to Philip's protection.

In the year 1200 a peace was made between France and England, and John was acknowledged as Richard's heir, and Arthur was obliged to do homage for Brittany, for which acknowledgment John paid the King of France a large sum.

John, feeling himself secure on the side of France, indulged his passion for Isabella, the daughter and heiress of Aymer,

Count of Angoulême, his queen, Avisia, daughter of the Duke of Gloucester, being still alive. Isabella was already married to the Count De La March, but on account of her tender years the marriage had not been consummated, although she was already consigned to the care of that nobleman.

He persuaded the Count of Angoulême to carry off his daughter from her husband; and having, on some pretence or other, procured a divorce from his own wife, married Isabella, August 24, 1200.

In the year 1201 the Counts De La March and d'En excited commotions in Poitou and Normandy, and John was obliged to have recourse to arms, in order to suppress the insurrection; he summoned the barons of England to accompany him for that purpose, but he found he had little authority over them, and they refused to attend him on his expedition unless he would promise to restore and preserve their privileges; but affairs were not fully ripe for the revolution projected, and by his menaces he broke their concert, and many followed him.

Civil war broke out in Poitou and Normandy in the year, 1202, and Prince Arthur besieged his grandmother, Queen Eleanor (who had always opposed his interests), at the castle of Mirabeau, protected by a weak garrison; but John, roused from his indolence, collected an army, and hastened to her assistance, and on August 1st defeated the besiegers in a pitched battle, killing or capturing them all. Arthur, then in his sixteenth year, was among the captives, together with the Count de la March and Geoffrey de Lusignan. John then returned in triumph to Normandy; on his arrival there he had a meeting with his nephew Arthur, representing to him the folly of his pretensions, and requiring him to immediately renounce his French alliance, which had encouraged him to live in a state of enmity with the rest of his family; but the brave though imprudent youth maintained the justice of his cause, and asserted his claim not only to the French provinces, but to the crown of England, and, in his turn, required John to restore the son of his elder brother to the possession of his inheritance. John, believing that Arthur, though now a prisoner, might at some future time prove dangerous, determined to

prevent all future peril, had him made away with, and the young prince was never heard of after.

John was accused of the murder by King Philip, and was summoned to defend himself before the peers of France. He refused to attend the court, and judgment was pronounced: "That John, Duke of Normandy, in violation of his oath to Philip, his lord, had murdered the son of his elder brother, a homager of the crown of France, and had perpetrated the "crime within the dominion of France;" he was found guilty of murder, felony, and treason, and was therefore adjudged to forfeit all the lands he held by homage in that country. This decree of forfeiture was vigorously put in force by Philip, and he took possession of all his French territories, except Guienne, and John fled to England, 1203.

The English barons, finding that they must suffer the disgrace of seeing the progress of the French arms without resistance, returned to their own country.

John now applied to Pope Innocent III., entreated him to interpose his authority between him and the French monarch. The Pope called on Philip to stop the progress of his arms, and to make peace with the King of England. But the French barons received the message with indignation, and disclaimed the Pope's temporal authority, and vowed they would assist their king against all his enemies.

John, that he might cover his own disgrace, exclaimed loudly against his English barons, who, he pretended, had deserted his standard in Normandy, and he arbitrarily extorted from them a seventh of all their movables as a punishment. The next year, 1205, he summoned them all to attend him on a foreign expedition, and collected ships from all the seaports, but meeting with some opposition from his ministers, abandoned his design, and dismissed his fleet and army, accusing the barons of again deserting him.

In 1206 John again crossed to France with a considerable army, and landed at Rochelle. He marched to Angers, which he took, and reduced to ashes; but the approach of Philip with an army threw him into a panic, and he immediately made proposals for peace, and fixed a place for an interview

with his enemy; but, instead of keeping his engagement, stole off with his army, embarked at Rochelle, and returned loaded with new shame and disgrace to England.

The following year he became involved in a contest with the clergy and the Church. He seized its possessions, and banished those who occupied them. Innocent III., the most powerful Pope who ever occupied the papal chair, laid England under interdict, and, in 1209, a bull of excommunication was issued against him, and John sought to prevent its promulgation in England, without which it could have no force. His fear now was that Philip would attempt the conquest of England under papal authority. In the meantime he compelled William, King of Scotland, to acknowledge his authority, effected the conquest of Wales, and led an army into Ireland, dividing the English possessions there into counties, and established English law.

In 1213 the Pope solemnly deposed John, and absolved all his vassals from their allegiance. The French king prepared to enforce the sentence, and John assembled a numerous army to defend his kingdom, but as he could not rely on its fidelity, he listened to the arguments of the Pope's Nuncio, and resigned his kingdom to the Sovereign Pontiff, whose vassal he became, May 13th. The nuncio, Pandolph, then proceeded to France, where he commanded Philip to put an end to his project of invading England, as it had become the patrimony of St. Peter.

John, exulting in his present security, now thought of invading France in his turn, and recovering all those provinces which Philip had taken from him. He proposed this expedition to the barons who were then assembled for the defence of the kingdom, but they both hated and despised their king, and saw no success to any enterprise conducted by such a leader; and pretending that their time of service was expired, and all their provisions exhausted, refused to second his undertakings; he, however, embarked with a few followers, but accomplished nothing.

Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury, formed a plan, in the year 1214, of reforming the government, and at a private meeting with some of the barons in London, showed them a

copy of the charter of Henry I., which he said he had lately found, and exhorted them to insist on the renewal and observance of it. The barons swore they would rather lose their lives than depart from so reasonable a demand; the confederacy soon spread, and included all the barons of England, and a new and more numerous meeting was summoned, when they unanimously agreed that they would, in a body, demand their rights, and in the meantime separate, put themselves in a posture of defence, enlist men, purchase arms, and supply their castles with necessary provisions.

The barons appeared in London January 6, 1215, by appointment, and demanded of the king a renewal of Henry's charter, and a confirmation of the Laws of Edward.

The king alarmed at their zeal and unanimity, as well as their power, asked for a delay, and promised that at the festival of Easter he would give them a positive answer to their petition; and offered four of the principal ministers as sureties for the fulfilling this engagement.

The barons accepted the terms, and peaceably returned to their castles.

John, in order to break or subdue the league of his barons, endeavored to avail himself of the aid of the ecclesiastical power, granted the clergy a charter, relinquished important prerogatives, vowed to lead an army against the infidels, and sent an agent to Rome, in hopes to receive the protection of the Pope.

The barons were not negligent on their part to engage the Pope in their interest, and despatched Eustace de Vescie, asking him to interpose his authority with the king, and oblige him to restore and confirm their just and undoubted privileges; but the barons soon found they must reckon on having the Pope as well as the king against them.

On April 27, 1215, the barons advanced in a body to Brackley, within fifteen miles of Oxford, where the king then held court, and there received a message from him desiring to know what those liberties were which they now demanded from their sovereign.

They then delivered to the messenger, the Archbishop of Canterbury, a schedule containing the chief articles of these

demands, which was no sooner shown to the king than he burst into a violent passion, and asked why the barons did not also demand of him his kingdom, swearing he would never grant them such liberties as must reduce him to slavery.

No sooner were the confederated nobles informed of John's reply than they chose Robert Fitz Walter their general, and immediately proceeded to make war on the king. They besieged the castle of Northampton, the gates of Bedford Castle were willingly opened to them, and on May 24th advanced on London, and without opposition were received into the capital, from which city they made incursions, laying waste the king's parks and palaces, and all the barons who had supported the royal party were glad to join a cause which they had always secretly favored. The king, finding himself deserted by all but a small retinue, was obliged to submit at discretion.

A conference between the king and barons was appointed at Runnemede, between Staines and Windsor, for June 15th. The two parties camped apart, like open enemies, and after a debate of a few days, he signed and sealed the charter required of him.

This famous charter granted or secured very important liberties and privileges to every order of men in the kingdom, and is now known as *Magna Charta*. It was signed June 19, 1215.

Pope Innocent, considering himself as feudal Lord of the kingdom, was incensed at the temerity of the barons, who though they pretended to appeal to his authority, dared, without waiting for his consent, to impose terms upon a prince who had placed himself and crown under the Papal protection. He immediately issued a "bull" annulling and abrogating the whole charter, and pronounced sentence of excommunication against every one who should persevere in maintaining such treasonable and iniquitous pretensions.

Civil war now commenced, and the king raised an army of mercenaries, and attacked the barons in their different castles. From the first he was master of the field, and now became sullen, silent, and reserved; he shunned the society of his courtiers and nobles.

The barons, now reduced to desperate extremity, their property and lives menaced, made application to King Philip for

assistance, and promised to acknowledge Lewis, his eldest son, as their sovereign, on condition that he would afford them protection from the violence of their enraged king. Philip, after exacting a number of noble hostages as a security for the safety of his son, sent over an army with Prince Lewis at their head, whose arrival caused the desertion of John's foreign troops, who were mostly levied in Flanders and other provinces of France. John was about to fight a battle for his crown, when he lost his baggage, treasure, carriages, and regalia, in the Wash, and suffering from sickness at the time, it so affected his mind, that he died soon after at Newark, October 19, 1216. The barons, finding Lewis had secret intentions of exterminating them and their families, and bestowing their estates on his own followers, deserted him, and he was compelled to return to France.

The character of John is nothing but a complication of vices, he was about the worst outcome of the Angevins. He united into one mass of wickedness their insolence, their selfishness, their unbridled lust, their cruelty and tyranny, their shamelessness, their superstition, and their indifference to honor and truth.

In mere boyhood he had torn, with brutal levity, the beards of the Irish chieftains who came to own him as their Lord. His ingratitude and perfidy had brought down his father's hairs with sorrow to the grave. To his brother he had been the worst of traitors. All Christendom believed him to be the murderer of his nephew, Arthur of Brittany. He had abandoned one wife, and was faithless to another. His punishments were refinements of cruelty: the starvation of children, the crushing old men under copes of lead. His court was a brothel, where no woman was safe from the royal lust, and where his cynicism loved to publish the news of his victim's shame. He was as craven in his superstition, as he was daring in his impiety. He scoffed at priests, and turned his back on the Mass, but he never stirred on a journey without hanging relics around his neck.

But with the supreme wickedness of his race he inherited its profound ability.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: William, Alexander II.; France: Philip II.; Emperors of the West: Philip, Otho IV.

Henry III.—A.D. 1216–1272.

Born at Winchester, October 1, 1207.

Crowned October 28, 1216.

Married, January 14, 1236, Eleanor, second daughter and co-heiress of Raymond Berenger, Count of Provence, by whom he had issue :

John, died young.

Henry, died young.

Edward, his successor.

Edmund—surnamed Crouchback—born 1245, Earl of Lancaster, Leicester, and Derby ; married, first, Avalina, daughter of the Earl of Albemarle.

No issue. Second, Blanche, Queen-Dowager of Navarre. Issue :

Thomas.

Henry.

Maud, married William de Burg.

Blanche, married Lord Wake.

Eleanor, married Lord Beaumont.

Isabel, Abbess of Amesbury.

Joan, married Lord Mowbray.

Mary, married Lord Percy.

Died at St. Edmundsbury, November 16, 1272.

Buried at Westminster Abbey.

HENRY was the eldest son of John and his queen, Isabel of Angoulême. He was born at Winchester on October 1, 1207 ; ascended the throne on the death of his father in the ninth year of his age. His reign was the longest in English history, except that of George III.

Henry's minority at his accession and the great power acquired by the barons in the latter part of King John's reign, crippled his power, and made his reign a weak one.

The Earl of Pembroke, who at the time of John's death was Marshal of England, was, in virtue of his office, at the head of the army, and during the civil wars at the head of the government, and it happened fortunately for the young king and the nation that the power could not have been in more able or faithful hands. This nobleman, who had maintained his loyalty unshaken to John during his worst fortune, was determined to support the authority of the infant prince ; nor was he dismayed at the number or violence of his enemies.

Sensible that Henry, according to the prejudices of the times, would not be considered a sovereign until crowned and

anointed by a churchman, he immediately carried the young prince to Gloucester, where the ceremony was performed on October 28, 1216, by the Bishops of Winchester and Bath, and in presence of Gualo, the Legate, and a few noblemen.

As the concurrence of the papal authority was requisite to support the tottering throne, Henry was obliged to swear fealty to the Pope, and renew that homage to which his father had already subjected the kingdom.

In order to enlarge the authority of Pembroke, and to give him a more regular and legal title to it, a general council of the barons was summoned at Bristol. They met on November 11th, and he was then elected Protector of the realm.

His first act was to confirm Magna Charta, and conciliate the discontented barons by writing letters to them, in the king's name, saying "that whatever jealousy and animosity they might have entertained against the late king, a young prince, the lineal heir of their ancient monarchs, had now succeeded to the throne, without succeeding either to the resentments or the principles of his predecessor; that the desperate expedient which they had employed of calling in a foreign potentate had, happily for them, as well as for the nation, failed of entire success, and it was still in their power, by a speedy return to their duty, to restore the independence of the kingdom, and to secure that liberty for which they contended. These considerations, enforced by the character and honor which Pembroke ever maintained, had a great influence on the barons, and most of them began secretly to negotiate with him, and others openly returned to their duty.

Prince Lewis had in the meantime returned from France with fresh forces from that kingdom, and found his party was greatly weakened by the desertion of so many of his English confederates, and that the death of John had, contrary to his expectations, given an incurable wound to his cause. Pembroke, much strengthened by the accession of the discontented barons, ventured to invest Mount Sorel, the French stronghold, but on the approach of the Count de Perch with large reinforcements, desisted from the enterprise. De Perch, elated with his success, marched to Lincoln, and being admitted into

the town, began to attack the castle, which he soon reduced to extremity. The Protector summoned all his forces, from every quarter, to relieve a place of such importance; and he appeared so much superior to the French, that they shut themselves within the city and resolved to act upon the defensive. But the garrison of the castle had received large reinforcements, and made a vigorous sally upon the besiegers, while the English army, by concert, assisted them at the same instant from without, mounted the walls by scalade, bore down all resistance, and entered the city, sword in hand.

Lincoln was delivered over to be pillaged; the French army totally routed, the Count de Perch was killed, and many of the chief commanders, and about four hundred knights were made prisoners by the English.

Prince Lewis was informed of this fatal defeat while employed in the siege of Dover. He immediately retreated to London, the centre and life of his party, and there received intelligence of a new disaster, which put an end to all his hopes. A French fleet bringing over large reinforcements had appeared on the coast, where they were attacked by the English and completely routed with great loss.

After this second misfortune of the French the remaining discontented English barons hastened to make peace with the Protector, and by an early submission prevent those attainders to which they were exposed.

Lewis, whose cause was now completely lost, became anxious about the safety of his person, and being anxious to escape on honorable conditions, soon made a peace with Pembroke, and promised to evacuate the kingdom, and only stipulated, in return, an indemnity to his adherents, and a restitution of their fortunes and honors, together with an equal enjoyment of those liberties which had been granted to the rest of the nation.

Thus was happily ended a civil war which had seemed to be founded on the most incurable hatred and jealousy, and had threatened the kingdom with the most fatal consequences.

After the expulsion of the French the Protector received the rebellious barons into favor, and strictly observed the terms of peace he had granted them. Not so Gualo, the Pope's le-

gate, who prepared to take vengeance on them for their disobedience to their spiritual head. Many of them were deposed, many suspended, some banished, and those who escaped punishment made atonement for their offence by paying large sums of money to the legate, who amassed a large fortune by this expedient.

The Earl of Pembroke did not long survive the pacification, which had been chiefly owing to his wisdom; he died soon after, and the power passed into the hands of the Bishop of Winchester and Hubert de Burg, the justiciary.

They had not the influence of Pembroke, and could not control the barons, who retained, by force, the royal castles they had seized during the late civil war, or had been committed to their custody by the Protector; they usurped the king's domain; they oppressed their vassals, and invited disorderly people to enter their service and to live upon their land. The consequences were internal commotions.

In the year 1222, De Burg applied to the Pope, who had always great authority in the kingdom, and was now considered as its superior lord, and requested him to issue a "bull" declaring the king to be of full age, and entitled to exercise, in person, all the acts of royalty. In consequence De Burg resigned into Henry's hands the two important fortresses, the Tower and Dover Castle, which had been entrusted to his custody, and he required the other barons to imitate his example.

They refused compliance, and several of them formed a conspiracy to surprise London, and met in arms at Waltham for that purpose, but finding the king prepared for defence, they desisted from their enterprise.

The archbishop and prelates, finding everything tending toward civil war, interposed with their authority, and threatened the barons with excommunication if they persisted in detaining the king's castles. This menace at last prevailed, and most of them were surrendered; and it is said there were eleven hundred and fifteen at that time in England.

In the year 1222, Henry demanded of Lewis VIII. of France, who had succeeded his father Philip, the restitution of Normandy, and other provinces wrested from England, but instead

of complying with his claim he made an invasion into Poitou, took Rochelle after a long siege, and seemed determined to expel the English from the few provinces which still remained to them. Henry sent over his uncle, the Earl of Salisbury, together with his brother Richard, the Earl of Cornwall. Salisbury stopped the progress of Lewis's arms, and retained the Poitevin and Gascon vassals in their allegiance, but no great action of any moment was performed on either side.

The character of the king, as he grew to man's estate, became every day better known; and he was found in every respect unqualified for maintaining a proper sway among those turbulent barons, whom the feudal constitution subjected to his authority. Gentle, humane, and merciful to a fault, he seems to have been steady in no other circumstance of his character, but to have received every impression from those who surrounded him, and whom he loved for the time, with the most imprudent and unreserved affection; but too feeble, in those disorderly times, to sway a sceptre whose weight depended entirely on the firmness and dexterity of the hand which held it.

The ablest and most virtuous minister that Henry ever possessed was Hubert de Burg, who, while he enjoyed his authority, had an entire ascendancy over the king, and was loaded with honors and favors beyond any other subject; yet Henry, in a sudden caprice, throw off his faithful minister, and exposed him to the violent persecution of his enemies, and afterward confined him in the Castle of Devizes, from which he made his escape in 1231, was expelled the kingdom, but was afterward allowed to return, and again taken into favor, but never showed any inclination to reinstate himself in power and authority.

The man who succeeded him in the government of the king and kingdom, was Peter, Bishop of Winchester, a Poitevin by birth, who had been raised by the late king. His first advice to Henry was to invite over a great number of his countrymen, who, he believed, could be more safely entrusted with office than the English, and who would be useful to counterbalance the great and independent power of the nobility. Every office and command was bestowed on the strangers; they exhausted the revenues of the crown, already impoverished, they invaded the

rights of the people, and their insolence, still more provoking than their power, drew on them the hatred and envy of all classes of men.

The barons formed a combination and withdrew from Parliament, and when summoned to attend, answered that the king should dismiss his foreigners, otherwise they would drive both him and them out of the kingdom, and put the crown on another head more worthy to wear it.

They at last came to Parliament, but so well attended that they seemed in a condition to prescribe laws to the king and ministry.

But Winchester found means of sowing dissensions among them, and of bringing over to his party some of the most powerful of them. He then easily disconcerted the remainder of the confederates, and confiscated their estates, without legal sentence or trial by their peers, bestowing them, with profuse liberality, on the Poitevins. Peter even carried his insolence so far as to declare that the barons of England must not pretend to put themselves on the same footing as those of France, or assume the same liberties or privileges.

So violent a ministry as that of the Bishop of Winchester could not be of long duration, but its fall proceeded at last from the influence of the Church, not from the efforts of the nobles.

Edmund, the primate, came to court attended by many of the other prelates, and represented to the king the pernicious measures embraced by Peter, the discontents of his people, and ruin of his affairs; and, after requiring the dismissal of the minister and his associates, threatened him with excommunication if he refused. Henry was obliged to submit, the foreigners were banished, and the natives were restored to their places.

The primate, who was a man of prudence, and who took care to execute the laws and observe the charter of liberties, bore the chief sway in the government.

The king married Eleanor, daughter of the Count of Provence, January 14, 1236, and many of her countrymen were invited over to England, and shared in the king's bounty. Four

of the queen's uncles came over; one was enriched by the grant of Richmondshire. The Savoy palace in the Strand still recalls the magnificence of a second (Peter of Savoy), who was raised for the time to the chief place in the council. Langton, the archbishop, dying at this time, Boniface, a third uncle, was promoted to the See of Canterbury, the highest post in the realm, save the crown itself. The young primate, like his brothers, brought with him foreign fashions strange to the English people. His armed retainers pillaged the markets, and his own archepiscopal fist felled to the ground the Prior of St. Bartholomew, who opposed his visitation. London was roused by the outrage, and, on the king's refusal to do justice, a noisy crowd of citizens surrounded the primate's house with cries of vengeance, and he was glad to escape over the sea. The brood of Provençals was soon followed by the arrival of the Poitevin relatives of John's queen, Isabel of Angoulême. Aymer was made Bishop of Winchester, William of Valence received the earldom of Pembroke, and even the king's jester was a Poitevin. Hundreds of their dependents followed these great lords to find a fortune in the English realm. Peter of Savoy brought in his train a bevy of ladies in search of husbands, and three young English earls, wards of the king, were obliged to marry some of them.

The whole machinery of the administration passed into the hands of men ignorant and contemptuous of the principles of English government. Their rule was a mere anarchy: the very retainers of the royal household turned robbers, and pillaged foreign merchants in the precincts of the court. Corruption invaded the judicature. Henry de Batt, a justiciary, was proved to have openly taken bribes, and to have adjudged to himself disputed estates.

Meanwhile the royal treasury was squandered in a frivolous attempt to wrest Poitou from the grasp of France; the attempt ended in failure and shame. At Taillebourg the forces under Henry fled in disgraceful rout before the French, as far as Santes, and only the sudden illness of Louis IX., and a disease which scattered his army, saved Bordeaux from the conquerors, and Henry was obliged to return with loss of honor to

England, and was forced to appeal for aid to the great council of the realm, which was granted on condition that he would confirm the charter. It was confirmed and steadily disregarded.

The Gascon nobility were attached to the English government because the distance of the sovereign allowed them to remain almost in a state of total independence, and they claimed Henry's protection, in the year 1253, against an invasion which the King of Castile made upon that territory. Henry returned to Guienne and was more successful, but he thereby involved himself and his nobility in debt, which increased their discontent, and exposed him to greater danger afterward.

The Pope at this time demanded and obtained a tenth of all ecclesiastical revenues, which he levied in a very oppressive manner. The chief benefices of the kingdom were conferred on Italians, and great numbers of that nation were sent over to be provided for. Mansel, the king's chaplain, is said to have held seven hundred ecclesiastical livings at one time. The people, entering into associations, rose against the Italian clergy, pillaged and laid waste their lands, insulted their persons wherever found, and when the justices made inquiry into the authors of the disorders, the guilt was found to involve so many, and those of such high rank, that it passed unpunished.

In 1255 the Pope offered Henry the crown of Sicily for his son Edmund, but the project brought much dishonor on the king, and involved him in great trouble and expense for a number of years. He applied to Parliament for supplies, and that he might be sure of not meeting with opposition, he sent no writs to the refractory barons; but even those he summoned determined not to waste their money on such projects, made a pretext of the absence of their brethren, and refused his demands.

The discontent of the barons still continued, and came to a head in the year 1258, when the imprudent and illegal measures afforded a pretence to Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, to attempt a change of the government, and to wrest the sceptre from the feeble and irresolute hand which held it. He secretly

called a meeting of the barons, and represented to them the necessity of reforming the state and putting the execution of the laws into other hands, as the king's word could no longer be trusted. These sentiments so well suited the barons, they at once decided on taking into their own hands the administration of the government.

Henry, having summoned a Parliament, hoping to receive supplies for his Sicilian project, the barons appeared in the hall clad in full armor. The king, on entering, was struck with their unusual appearance, and asked them their purpose, and if they intended to make him their prisoner. Roger Bigod replied in the name of the rest, "that he was not their prisoner, but their sovereign; that they even intended to grant him supplies, in order to place his son on the throne of Sicily, but as he had frequently made promises and had acknowledged past errors, and had still continued in the same path, which gave them such reason for complaint, he must now yield to more strict regulations, and confer authority on those who were able and willing to redress the national wrongs." Henry, partly allured by the hopes of supply, and partly intimidated, agreed to their demands, and promised to summon another Parliament in order to settle the new form of government.

This Parliament met at Oxford, June 11, 1158. The barons brought with them their military vassals. The king had taken no precautions—was, in reality, a prisoner in their hands—and was obliged to submit to all the terms which they were pleased to impose upon him. Twelve barons were selected from among the king's ministers and twelve selected by Parliament, to whom unlimited authority was given to reform the state, and the king took an oath that he would maintain whatever ordinances they should think proper to enact for that purpose.

Leicester was at the head of this supreme council, and it was ordered that four knights should be chosen by each county, and they should make inquiry into the grievances with which their neighborhood had reason to complain, and should attend the ensuing Parliament in order to give that assembly information.

Meanwhile the twenty-four barons proceeded to enact other

regulations and redress such grievances as were sufficiently notorious, but instead of continuing in this popular course, or granting supplies to the king, which they had promised him, they immediately provided for the extension of their own authority. They roused anew the popular clamor against foreigners, and fell with the utmost violence on the king's half-brothers, who were supposed to be the authors of all national grievances. The four brothers, sensible of their danger, took to flight. The government was now in the hands of the barons, but by their arbitrary conduct they lost the popularity they once enjoyed.

Hearing that the king's brother, Richard, King of the Romans, intended to pay England a visit in the year 1259, the ruling barons feared his influence, and tried to prevent his coming. They sent the Bishop of Worcester to meet him at St. Omar, asked him, in the name of the barons, the reason of his journey, how long he intended to stay, and insisted that before he entered England he should swear to observe the regulations established at Oxford.

On Richard's refusal to take this oath, they prepared to resist him as a public enemy; fitted out a fleet, assembled an army, and exciting the prejudices of the people, the King of the Romans was obliged to submit to the terms required of him.

A treaty favorable to Henry was made May 20, 1259, with Louis IX., King of France, who delivered up some territories conquered from Poitou and Guienne, and agreed to pay Henry a large sum of money, and only required that the king in return should make a final cession of Normandy and the other provinces, which he could never entertain hopes of recovering by force of arms.

The cession was ratified by Henry, by his two sons and two daughters, and by Richard and his three sons.

In 1261 the Pope absolved the king and all his subjects from the oath which he had taken to observe the provisions sworn to at Oxford. On receiving this absolution from his oath, Henry immediately issued a proclamation justifying his conduct; declared he had again resumed the government, and was determined to exert the royal authority for the protection of his

subjects, and on April 23, 1262, he removed the principal officers of the government, substituted new sheriffs, placed new governors in most of the castles, and changed all the officers of his household; he summoned a new Parliament, in which the resumption of his authority was ratified; and the barons, after making one fruitless attempt to take the king by surprise at Winchester, were obliged to acquiesce in the new regulations.

In 1263 Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, entered into a conspiracy with the Earl of Leicester, and invaded England with thirty thousand men. He was met and defeated by Prince Edward, who was prevented making further progress against the enemy owing to disorders just broke out in England. The Welsh invasion was the signal for the malcontent barons to rise in arms against the king; and Leicester, coming over secretly from France, collected all the forces of his party together and commenced an open rebellion. The king, being unable to resist their power, was obliged to sue for peace, and on July 18, 1263, made an accommodation with the barons, promising to agree to and confirm anew the provisions of Oxford, even those which completely annihilated the royal authority.

Prince Edward had previously been taken prisoner by Leicester, and that misfortune had determined Henry to submit to the conditions imposed on him.

The prince soon recovered his liberty, and employed his time in defending the prerogatives of his family. He soon formed a party, and gained many who at first adhered to the cause of the barons.

The two parties were now pretty evenly balanced, and the clamor of the people obliged the king to open negotiations with the barons, and it was agreed on both sides to submit their differences to the King of France to arbitrate between them. On January 24, 1264, he rendered his decision.

He annulled the provisions of Oxford, restored to the king possession of his castles and the power of nominating to office; to retain what foreigners he pleased in his kingdom, and declared that a general amnesty should be granted for past offences.

This award was no sooner heard in England than Leicester

and his party determined to reject it, and immediately prepared for war.

The king and prince, finding war inevitable, prepared themselves for defence, and summoning their military vassals from all quarters, they formed a formidable army, and met the enemy on several occasions; the kingdom was thus exposed in a moment to greater devastations than it would have suffered from foreign invasion.

Leicester, who possessed great talent for war, led his army with skill and secrecy, and attacked the king's army on May 14, 1264, at Lewes, in Sussex, where he defeated it with great slaughter, and obliged the king to surrender himself prisoner.

Prince Edward was also obliged to submit to all Leicester's terms, and agreed to deliver himself and Henry d'Almaine, Richard's son, up as hostages, in lieu of the two kings, Henry and Richard, and that the prisoners on both sides should be released.

Leicester had so soon gained this advantage, and gotten the whole royal family in his power, than he openly violated every article of the treaty, and acted as sole master and tyrant of the kingdom, and retained the king's prisoners. He summoned a Parliament, composed altogether of his own partisans, in order to rivet by their authority the power he had acquired by violence.

The Pope, adhering to the king's cause against the barons, despatched Cardinal Guido as his legate to England, with orders to excommunicate the Earls of Leicester, Gloucester, and Norfolk, and all others who concurred in the captivity of their king. Leicester menaced the legate with death if he set foot within the kingdom, but Guido meeting in France the Bishops of London, Winchester, and Worcester, commanded them, under the penalty of ecclesiastical censures, to carry the "bull" into England and publish it against the barons. On their arrival off the coast they were boarded by piratical mariners of the Cinque Ports, to whom they probably gave a hint of their commission, when the bull was seized, torn into fragments, and thrown into the sea.

That he might increase and turn to advantage his popularity,

Leicester summoned a new Parliament on January 20, 1265, in London, where he knew his power was uncontrollable, and he fixed this assembly on a more democratic basis than any ever before summoned. Besides the barons and ecclesiastics, he ordered writs to be made for the return of two knights from each shire, and, what is more remarkable, of deputies from boroughs, an order of men who in former ages had been regarded as too mean to enjoy a place in the nation's councils. This period is generally considered as the origin of the House of Commons of to-day in England.

Prince Edward still languished in prison since the battle of Lewes, but Leicester, finding a strong feeling among the nation for his release, consented, and stipulated that in return Edward should order his adherents to deliver up their castles, and should swear neither to depart from the kingdom during three years, nor introduce into it any foreign force.

In consequence of this treaty, Prince Edward was brought into Westminster Hall, and declared free; but he soon found he was only a prisoner at large, and was continually guarded by Leicester's emissaries. He succeeded, however, in making his escape. The royalists, who had been preparing for this event, immediately flew to arms, and soon Edward was at the head of an army that Leicester was unable to withstand, and on August 4, 1265, both armies met at Eversham. Edward was victorious, Leicester's army was entirely routed, and he himself slain in the heat of the action.

The victory of Eversham was the death of the rebellion, and the clemency of the king was remarkable; no blood was shed on the scaffold, and no attainders, except Leicester's Montfort family. The king's authority was therefore established, and tranquillity restored.

Prince Edward joined the King of France, 1270, in a crusade against the infidels, but Lewis dying at Tunis, the prince continued his voyage to the Holy Land, where he distinguished himself by acts of valor, revived the glory of the English name in those parts, and struck terror into the Saracens.

Meanwhile his absence from England was attended with serious consequences; the laws were not executed, the barons op-

pressed the people with impunity, and the old king, unequal to the burden of public affairs, called aloud for his gallant son's return to assist him in swaying that sceptre which was ready to drop from his feeble hands. At last, from the cares of government and the infirmities of age, he expired at St. Edmundsbury, November 16, 1272, in the sixty-fourth year of his age and the fifty-sixth of his reign, and was succeeded by Edward I.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Alexander II., Alexander III.; France, Philip II., Louis VIII. (the Lion), Louis IX. (St. Louis), Philip III. (the Bold).

Edward I. (Longshanks)—A.D. 1272-1307.

Born at Westminster, June 17, 1239.

Crowned August 19, 1274.

Married, first, Eleanor, daughter of Ferdinand III., King of Castile, 1254.

Had issue :

Henry, died young.

Alphonse, died unmarried.

Edward, created Prince of Wales.

Eleanor, married Alphonso, King of Arragon.

Joan of Acre, married Gilbert, Earl of Gloucester.

Margaret, married the Duke of Brabant.

Mary, a nun.

Elizabeth, married Earl of Holland.

Married, second, Margaret, daughter of Philip III. of France. Had issue :

Thomas, Earl of Norfolk.

Margaret, married Lord Seagrave.

Alice, married Edward de Montague.

Died near Carlisle, July 7, 1307.

EDWARD—surnamed Longshanks from the great length of his legs—eldest son of Henry III. and his Queen Eleanor, born at Westminster, June 17, 1239, was absent in the Holy Land when Henry died.

The council of ministers, reflecting on the late civil wars, and the animosities naturally remaining after them, had reason to fear dangerous consequences from the absence of the son and successor of the late king.

They therefore hastened to proclaim Prince Edward, to swear allegiance to him, and to summon the states of the kingdom, in

order to provide for the public peace, and on November 20, 1272, he was proclaimed and acknowledged king, and Walter Gifford, Archbishop of York, the Earl of Cornwall, son of King Richard, and the Earl of Gloucester, were appointed guardians of the realm, and proceeded to the exercise of their authority without opposition from any party. The high character acquired by Edward had procured for him the esteem and affections of all classes. He had reached Sicily from the Holy Land when he received intelligence of the death of his father, and at the same time learned of the death of an infant son, John, whom his princess, Eleanor of Castile, had borne him.

Hearing of the quiet settlement of the kingdom, he was in no hurry to take possession of the throne, but spent a year in France before he made his appearance in England. He arrived in Paris, and did homage to Philip for the dominions he held in France. He then went to Guienne, and settled matters in that province, which were in some confusion, and after journeying through the country, arrived in London, where he was received with joyful acclamations by his people, and was solemnly crowned at Westminster by Robert, Archbishop of Canterbury, August 19, 1274.

The king immediately applied himself to the re-establishment of his kingdom, and to the correcting of disorders and civil commotions that the loose administration of his father had introduced into every department of the government.

His policy was equally generous and prudent; he considered the great barons both as the rivals of the crown and oppressors of the people, and he decided, by the distribution of justice and the rigid execution of the laws, to give protection to the inferior orders of the state, and to diminish the power of the great; and he made the crown regarded by gentry and commonalty of the kingdom as the fountain of justice and an asylum against oppression.

Besides enacting several useful statutes in a parliament which he summoned at Westminster, he took care to inspect the conduct of all his magistrates and judges, and to displace those who were either negligent or corrupt, to provide sufficient force for the execution of justice, to extirpate all bands of robbers, and

to repress the more silent robberies, committed either by the power of the nobles or under countenance of public authority.

By this rigid administration the face of the kingdom was soon changed, and order and justice took the place of violence and oppression. Among the various crimes to which the kingdom was subject, none was more universally complained of than the adulteration of the coinage, and as this required more art than the English of that age were possessed of, the imputation fell upon the Jews. Edward appears to have indulged strong prejudices against that nation, and he let loose the whole rigor of his justice against that unhappy people. Two hundred and eighty of them were hanged at one time in London alone, besides those who suffered in other parts of the kingdom, and no less than fifteen thousand of them were robbed of their effects and banished.

The active spirit of Edward could not long remain without employment; he soon after undertook an enterprise more prudent for himself and more advantageous for his people.

Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, had been deeply engaged with the Leicester faction during his father's reign, and had entered into all the conspiracies against the crown, and until the battle of Eversham, so fatal to that party, had used every expedient to depress the royal cause, and to promote that of the barons. He still maintained a secret correspondence with his old associates, and when Edward required him to come to England and do him homage, he declined to put himself into the hands of an enemy unless promised a safe conduct from Edward, and insisted upon having the king's son and other noblemen delivered to him as hostages. The king was not displeased for this occasion of exercising his authority, and subduing the principality of Wales. He refused all Llewellyn's demands, except that of a safe conduct, sent him repeated summonses to perform his duty as a vassal, levied an army to reduce him to obedience, obtained authority from Parliament, and marched, with certain assurance of success, against the enemy, 1277. Llewellyn, without being able to strike a blow for his independence, was obliged to submit at discretion, and receive the terms imposed upon him by Edward; he was obliged to pay

the king £50,000 for the expenses of the war, and do homage to England, but owing to the poverty of the principality the fine was remitted.

The English, now insolent on their easy victory, oppressed the inhabitants of the districts that had yielded to them. The Lords' Marches, with impunity, committed all kinds of violence on their Welsh neighbors, and new and more severe terms were imposed upon Llewellyn himself.

The Welsh were now determined to heal all domestic differences, and rather to encounter a superior force than bear oppression.

Prince David made peace with his brother, and promised to help him in the defence of their mutual liberty. The Welsh flew to arms, and Edward, determined to make the conquest final and absolute, assembled all his military forces, and advanced into Wales. The situation of the country gave the Welsh some advantage at first, but Llewellyn was surprised by Mortimer, was defeated and slain, and two thousand of his followers put to the sword. David, who succeeded him, could never collect an army sufficient to face the English, was chased from hill to hill, from one retreat to another, and at last, betrayed to the enemy, was sent in chains to Shrewsbury, there tried and condemned to be hanged, drawn, and quartered as a traitor. All the Welsh nobility submitted to the conqueror in the year 1283.

Edward then summoned the leading Welsh, and promised to give them a prince of Wales, one born in the principality, and who could not speak the English language. On their acclamations of joy, he then invested his second son, Edward, an infant, who had been born at Carnarvon, Prince of Wales (his eldest son, Alphonso, being dead), affirming that he fulfilled the conditions. The principality was then fully annexed to the crown, and, from that time to the present day, gives that title to the eldest son of the kings and queens of England.

In the year 1289 he resolved on the subjugation of Scotland, to whose crown there were at this time thirteen claimants; being invited to act as arbitrator, he took possession of many of the principal fortresses, and then conferred the crown on

John Baliol, who soon renounced his allegiance. Edward again marched across the Tweed, and gained a great victory at Dunbar, 1296, and sent Baliol into exile. He bore away the Scotch crown and sceptre, and left the highest offices in the hands of Englishmen under the Earl of Surrey, who received the title of Guardian of the Kingdom.

The Scotch rallied in 1297, under the chieftain, Sir William Wallace, and totally defeating the English at the battle of Stirling, September 10th, drove them out of the kingdom.

Edward had for some time carried on a war with France, and was anxious for the recovery of Guienne; he had despatched his brother, the Earl of Lancaster, with an army of seven thousand men, and formed an alliance with John, Earl of Holland, and Guy, Earl of Flanders, and stipulated to pay them a sum of money to unite their forces against Philip of France, their common enemy. He hoped that when he himself, at the head of the English, Dutch, and Flemish armies—reinforced by his German allies, to whom he had remitted considerable sums—should enter the frontier of France, and threaten the capital itself, Philip would at last be obliged to relinquish his acquisitions, and purchase peace by the restitution of Guienne. But, in order to set this great machine in motion, large sums were required from Parliament, which he soon accomplished by grants, and made levies on the barons, knights, and boroughs, but on levying on the clergy he met with considerable opposition, and they took shelter under a “bull,” issued by Pope Boniface, and refused compliance. Instead of applying to the Pope for a relaxation of this “bull,” he resolved to employ the power in his hands, and he told the clergy that since they refused to support the civil power they were unworthy to receive any benefit from it, and he would, accordingly, put them out of the protection of the laws; and this vigorous measure was immediately carried into execution.

The clergy soon found themselves in a most miserable situation, they could not remain in their own houses or convents, for want of sustenance, and if they went abroad, they were dismounted and robbed, and no redress could be obtained.

The spirits of the clergy were at last broken by this harsh

treatment, and they were obliged in the end to come forward and contribute the fifth required, and receive the king's protection.

Though the money granted by Parliament was considerable, it was not sufficient for the king's necessities, and he was obliged to exert his arbitrary power. He levied exorbitant taxes on the merchants, and seized the product of the land for the supply of his armies, which resulted in great dissatisfaction, that some of the leading barons were glad to take advantage of, and, by that means, preventing his carrying on the war in Guienne, as he intended; but leaving the Prince of Wales and a council in charge of the kingdom, he sailed for Flanders, 1297.

The King of France had previously invaded the Low Countries, and defeated the Flemings in several engagements, and seemed in a situation to take full vengeance on them, when Edward landed with fifty thousand men, and was able to stay his victorious career. Philip, finding the resources of his kingdom exhausted, began to dread a reverse of fortune, and apprehended an invasion of France itself.

Edward, on the other hand, was disappointed of assistance promised by Adolph, King of the Romans, which he had purchased at a high price, and, finding many urgent calls for his presence in England, was desirous of ending, on any honorable terms, a war which seemed only to divert his force from the execution of more important projects.

This disposition in both monarchs soon produced an arrangement, and a truce was made for two years, and they engaged to submit their difficulties to Pope Boniface for arbitration. Boniface brought them in time to agree to the following terms: That Edward, who was now a widower, should marry Margaret, Philip's sister, and the Prince of Wales, with Isabella, daughter of that monarch; that Philip should restore Guienne to the English. Their disputes, after mutual concessions, were agreed to, Edward promises to abandon his ally, the Earl of Flanders, and Philip his ally, the King of Scots.

Edward, being relieved from all danger on the part of France, returned to London, 1298, where he made the citizens concessions and promises, and was then in a position to wipe out the

disgrace his army had met with at Stirling. He collected the whole military force of England, Wales, and Ireland, of nearly one hundred thousand combatants, and marched for Scotland, and on July 22d, met the Scots at Falkirk, and utterly defeated them. Sir William Wallace, who commanded the third division of the army, escaped, but the subjection of the country was not entirely completed, as the English army was obliged to retire for want of provisions.

The Scotch, in the year 1303, chose John Cumming as their regent, and, not content with maintaining their independence in the north, made incursions into the southern counties, which Edward thought he had entirely subdued. John de Seagrave, whom he had left guardian of Scotland, led an army to oppose them, and, on February 21st, met the enemy, and after three separate engagements, the English were defeated, and chased from the field, and the regent soon made himself master of all the fortresses of the southern counties. So it became necessary for Edward to begin anew the conquest of the kingdom.

He immediately assembled a large fleet and great army, and entering the frontiers of Scotland, appeared with an army, which the enemy could not meet in the field. He marched victoriously from one end of the kingdom to the other, ravaging as he went, and reducing all the castles, and received the submissions of the regent and all the nobility.

Having completed his conquest, which employed him for nearly two years, he now undertook the more difficult task of settling the country, and establishing a new form of government, and making his acquisition durable to the crown of England. He abrogated all the Scottish laws and customs, he endeavored to substitute the English in their place, and tried to abolish entirely the Scottish name, and to sink finally in the English.

Edward deemed his conquest exposed to danger so long as Wallace remained alive, and being prompted by revenge and policy, employed every art to discover his retreat. He was at last betrayed into Edward's hands, who ordered him to be carried in chains to London, where he was executed August 23, 1305, on Tower Hill.

The war was again kindled by Robert Bruce, who was elected king, 1306, and though at first unsuccessful, at length gained a decided victory over the Earl of Pembroke. Edward assembled a large army, and was preparing to enter Scotland, determined to make the Scots the victims of his severity, and certain of success, when he was overtaken by a sickness at Carlisle from which he died on July 7, 1307.

With his last breath he enjoined his son and successor to prosecute the war, and never stop until he had finally subdued and conquered the kingdom.

With the reign of Edward begins modern England—the England in which we live. The parliaments which Edward gathered at the close of his reign, are not merely illustrative of the history of later parliaments, they are absolutely identical with those which still sit at St. Stephen's; and a statute of Edward, if unrepealed, can be pleaded in the courts as formally as a statute of Victoria, and in his reign the meeting of Parliament was restricted to Westminster. Conservators of the Peace were appointed, and the King's Court was divided into the King's Bench, Exchequer, and Common Pleas, each receiving a distinct staff of judges.

Edward was a tall, stately, austere personage, well versed in war and government, and thus a great king, though very far indeed from a just and good man. He showed no more regard for his word or his oath, or repeated confirmations of Magna Charta, than his father had done, but he was merciless in punishing any breach of engagements to himself, which by his sword he had obliged others to contract. He was utterly unscrupulous, but was wise enough to see how far he could safely go.

He died in the sixty-ninth year of his age, and thirty-fifth year of his reign, hated by his neighbors, but respected and loved by his own people.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Alexander III., Margaret, Baliol, Robert I. (Bruce); France: Philip III., Philip IV. (The Fair); Emperors of the West: Rudolph, Adolph, Albert I.

Edward II.—A.D. 1307-1327.

Born at Carnarvon, Wales, April 25, 1284.

Received as king, July 8, 1307.

Crowned, February 23, 1308.

Married, January 28, 1308, Isabella, daughter of Philip IV. of France. Issue: Edward, Prince of Wales, who succeeded him.

John, Earl of Cornwall, died young.

Joan, married David, King of Scotland.

Eleanor, married the Duke of Guelders.

Deposed, January 13, 1327.

Murdered, September 21, 1327.

EDWARD was the second son of Edward I. and Eleanor of Castile. He was born at Carnarvon Castle, April 25, 1284, ascended the throne, on the death of his father, in the twenty-fourth year of his age, July 8, 1307.

The nation was prepossessed in young Edward's favor, and on the death of his father all men hastened with alacrity to take the oath of allegiance to his son and successor, to whom they promised a long and happy reign; but his first act blasted all their hopes, and showed him to be totally unqualified for that perilous situation in which every English monarch, in those days of unstable government, found himself placed.

Robert Bruce, though his army had been dispersed, remained not long inactive; but before the death of the late king had again collected his followers, had appeared in the field, and had obtained, by surprise, an important advantage over the English forces. He had now become so important a personage as to have afforded the King of England sufficient glory in subduing him, without incurring any danger of seeing all those mighty preparations made by his father fail in the enterprise.

But Edward, instead of pursuing his advantages, marched but a little way into Scotland, and having an utter incapacity and equal aversion for all application to serious business, immediately retraced his footsteps, and disbanded his army. His nobles perceived from this conduct that the authority of the crown, fallen into such feeble hands, was no longer to be dreaded, and that every insolence might be practised by them with impunity.

The next measure performed by Edward was equally distasteful. There was one Pierce Gavaston, son of a Gascon knight, who had honorably served the king, and as a reward for his services received an appointment in the establishment of the Prince of Wales for his son. This young man soon insinuated himself into the affections of his master by supplying him with those innocent though frivolous amusements by which he gained such an entire ascendancy over the young prince that the late king, fearing the consequences, had banished him the kingdom, and had, before he died, made his son promise never to recall him; but no sooner did he find himself master, as he imagined, than he sent for Gavaston, and, even before his arrival at court, endowed him with the Earldom of Cornwall, which had reverted to the crown on the death of Edmund, son of Richard, King of the Romans. Not content with this, he loaded him with new honors and riches, married him to his own niece, and seemed to enjoy no pleasure unless in exalting his favorite. The haughty barons, offended at the superiority of a minion who they looked on as inferior to themselves, did not conceal their discontent, and soon found means to justify their animosity in the character and conduct of the man they hated.

Soon after his return from Scotland, Edward undertook a journey to France, in order to do homage to Philip for the duchy of Guienne, and to marry the Princess Isabella, to whom he had long been engaged. Edward left Gavaston guardian of the kingdom, with more ample powers than had usually been conferred, and on returning with his young queen, renewed all the proofs of fond attachment to his favorite, of which every one so loudly complained.

The queen was of an imperious and intriguing spirit, and finding that her husband's capacity required to be governed, she thought herself best entitled to perform that office; and she therefore contracted a mortal hatred against the man who had usurped that office and disappointed her in these expectations. She was well pleased to see a combination of the nobility forming against Gavaston, who, sensible of her hatred, had knowingly provoked her by insults and injuries.

Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, cousin to the king, first prince of the blood, was the most powerful subject in England. He was turbulent and factious, and mortally hated the favorite, whose influence over the king was greater than his own, and he soon became the head of that party among the barons who desired the ruin of the insolent stranger.

The confederated nobles bound themselves by oath to expel Gavaston, and both sides began to put themselves in a warlike posture.

The licentiousness of the age broke out in robberies and disorders, the usual prelude to civil war, and the royal authority, despised in the king's own hands, and hated in Gavaston's, became insufficient for the execution of the laws and the maintenance of peace in the kingdom.

A Parliament being summoned at Westminster, Lancaster and his party came hither, with an armed retinue, and were there enabled to impose their own terms on the king.

They required the banishment of Gavaston, and imposed an oath on him never to return.

Edward was obliged to submit, but appointed him Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and attended him to Bristol on his journey thither. The king now employed every expedient to soften the opposition of the barons, and Lancaster and other principal noblemen were conciliated by appointments to office.

But in 1308 Edward applied and received from the court of Rome a dispensation relieving Gavaston from his oath that he would never return to England, and went down to Chester to receive him on his return from Ireland, flew into his arms with transports of joy, and having received the consent of the barons in Parliament to his re-establishment, set no longer any bounds to his fondness and affection.

Gavaston, forgetting the past, resumed the same ostentation and insolence, and became more than ever the object of detestation among the nobility.

The barons were now determined on employing sharp and effectual means, and determined to make a total alteration in the constitution and the civil government. They therefore

attended Parliament in defiance of law, with a numerous retinue of armed followers, and found themselves masters of the situation. They then presented a petition which was equal to a demand, requiring Edward to bestow on a chosen commission the whole authority of the crown and Parliament, which he consented to, and was obliged to sign a warrant, empowering the prelates and barons to appoint twelve persons who should, until Michaelmas next ensuing, have authority to enact ordinances for the government of the kingdom and the regulation of the king's household.

The chosen commissioners accordingly framed the ordinances and presented them to the king and Parliament the following year, and they became law. One of them was the removal of evil counsellors, by which a number of persons were by name excluded from every office of power and profit, and Gavaston was forever banished the kingdom, and persons agreeable to the barons were substituted in all offices. It was also ordered that the power of making war or assembling his military tenants should no longer be vested in the king, without the consent of the nobility, 1311.

Edward removed to York in the year 1312, and freed himself in a measure from the terror of the barons' power. He then invited Gavaston back from Flanders, and declared his banishment illegal, and, contrary to the laws and customs of the kingdom, reinstated him in his former place and authority. The barons, provoked and apprehensive of danger to themselves from the animosity of so powerful a minion, saw that either his or their ruin was now inevitable, and they renewed with double zeal their confederacies against him. The Earl of Lancaster was the head of this alliance, other powerful noblemen brought it a great acquisition of power, and as the Archbishop of Canterbury professed himself of the same party, he determined the body of the clergy, and consequently the people, to declare against the king. The Earl of Lancaster raised an army, and marched to York, where he found the king had moved to Newcastle. He marched thither to find Edward just escaped to Tynemouth, where he embarked with Gavaston for Scarborough, and left his favorite in that fortress; he then marched

to York in hopes of raising an army which might be able to support him against his enemies.

Pembroke was sent by the confederates to besiege the castle of Scarborough, and Gavaston, knowing the bad condition of the garrison, was obliged to capitulate on May 19, 1312.

Pembroke, now master of the person of this public enemy, conducted him to the Castle of Dedington, where he left him protected by a feeble guard. Warwick, perhaps in concert with Pembroke, attacked the castle; the garrison not resisting, Gavaston was yielded up to him and conducted to Warwick Castle. The Earls of Lancaster, Arundel, and Hereford immediately repaired thither, and without any regard to law or the military capitulation, ordered the head of the obnoxious favorite to be struck off by the hands of the common executioner.

The king had retired to Berwick when he heard of Gavaston's murder; he threatened vengeance on all the nobility who had been concerned in that bloody scene, and made preparations for war, but soon after hearkened to terms of accommodation, and granted the barons a pardon for all offences, and as they promised to ask his pardon on their knees, he was so pleased that he forgave them all their past injuries.

The appearing unity of all parties since the death of Gavaston seemed to restore the kingdom to its native strength, and opened up the prospect of again reducing Scotland. Edward assembled forces from all quarters, he enlisted troops from Flanders and other foreign countries, he invited over large numbers of the disorderly Irish, and joined to them a large body of Welsh troops, and assembling all the military force of England, marched to the borders, with a force of one hundred thousand men.

The army collected by Robert Bruce did not exceed thirty thousand combatants, but being composed of men who had distinguished themselves by many acts of valor, and who were rendered desperate by their situation, may be deemed formidable to the most numerous and best appointed armies.

Robert, believing that Stirling Castle was the objective point of the English, chose the field of battle with all skill and prudence at Bannockburn, about two miles from that fortress. The

English army arrived in sight on the evening of June 24, 1314. Early in the morning Edward drew out his army, and advanced toward the Scots, the battle commenced, and the Scots were victorious. The English were seized with a panic, threw down their arms and fled; they were pursued with great slaughter, and the king narrowly escaped by taking shelter in Dunbar, whose gates were opened to him, and thence passed by sea to England. Such was the great and decisive battle of Bannockburn, which secured the independence of Scotland, fixed Bruce on the throne of that kingdom, and may be considered the greatest overthrow England had received since the conquest.

This ill-success made Edward more unpopular than ever, though he had behaved gallantly in the battle, and Lancaster now openly took direction of the government. In this distress the king chose another favorite, as he was termed, but more properly a minister, on whose attachment he could rely. This was Hugh Despencer, who had been in his household along with Gavaston, and was a man well versed in war. He was also of noble family, and had many friends and relatives among the barons; he thus formed a strong party that was ready to oppose the designs of Lancaster and his associates, who manifestly aimed at reducing the king to a mere state of tutelage, if not deposing him.

Encouraged by the success of the Scots at Bannockburn, the Welsh again took up arms, and formed an alliance with them, whilst Edward Bruce (the brother of King Robert) passed into Ireland, where he was received with joy by the natives, who knew that any change of masters could not be for the worse, so tyrannical did the Anglo-Irish lords behave (1315). The Welsh were soon put down, but Lancaster and his friends absolutely refused to march against the Scots, and it appeared afterward that they had entered into a traitorous agreement with them. The Scots, unopposed, next took Berwick, and then marching into Yorkshire, they ravaged the country, when the king narrowly escaped capture. But in Ireland the Scots were defeated and their leader killed.

In the year 1319, through the activity of Despencer, he gathered an army, at the head of which he marched into Scotland,

and besieged Berwick, but was unable to retake it. On his return to England, a parliament was held at Westminster, when the different parties were reconciled, neither being strong enough to put down the other, so a compromise was agreed to. Despencer retained his office as Lord Chamberlain, but Lancaster was placed at the head of a council of sixteen appointed "to assist the king." This was followed by a two years' truce with the Scots, and before that had expired a total change had taken place, which gave, for a while, the government into the hands of Despencer.

A quarrel having occurred between him and the Earl of Hereford about the boundaries of their estates, the latter allied himself with Lancaster, and without attempting to settle the matter peaceably the two earls ravaged Despencer's lands, and then marching to London held a parliament on their own authority, when the favorite and his father were banished, the king having no power to assist them. Their banishment was attended by the seizure of their property, but young Despencer soon returned, bringing with him foreign cross-bow men, to whom the king joined himself, when the estates of the earls were ravaged in turn (1322). Hereford and Lancaster, now applied to the Scots for assistance, and marched to the north to meet their allies. They were followed by the king after pardon had been offered, and being overtaken at Boroughbridge were there totally defeated. The Earl of Hereford was killed in the battle, and Lancaster being taken prisoner was tried by court-martial, found guilty of treason, and beheaded at Pontefract, March 23, 1322. Several other noble prisoners were also executed.

The Lancastrian party being thus crushed, the king led an army into Scotland, but he could effect nothing of moment owing to the treachery of some of his generals, and a truce of fourteen years was soon after concluded. Roger Mortimer escaped from the tower after a year's imprisonment, and succeeded in reaching France.

Charles was now on the throne of that country, and he had some grounds of complaint against Edward's minister in Guienne, and was anxious to take advantage of the weakness of the English king, and under pretence of these complaints to

confiscate all his French possessions. Queen Isabella now proposed to go over to Paris, and endeavor to adjust, in an amicable manner, the difference with her brother; but while she was making preparations Charles started a new pretension, the justice of which could not be disputed, that Edward himself should appear at his court and do homage for the fees he held in France; but there were many difficulties in the way of complying with this demand.

Young Despencer, by whom the king was entirely governed, had unavoidably been engaged in many quarrels with the queen, who aspired to the same influence, and though that artful princess, on her leaving England, had dissembled her animosity, Despencer, well acquainted with her secret sentiments, was unwilling to attend his master to Paris, where he might be exposed to insults, if not danger, through her influence. He also objected to the king making the journey alone, fearing that Edward might fall under other influences, and foreseeing the perils to which he himself would be exposed if without the royal protection, knowing he was so generally hated.

While these doubts occasioned delays and difficulties, Isabella proposed that Edward should resign the dominion of Guienne to his son Edward, now thirteen years of age, and that the prince should come to Paris, and do the homage which every vassal owed to his superior lord. This expedient, which seemed to remove all difficulties, was immediately embraced; young Edward was sent to Paris, 1325. and the ruin covered under this fatal snare was never perceived by any of the English council.

The queen on her arrival in France had there found a great number of English fugitives, the remains of the Lancastrian faction, among them Roger Mortimer, a leading baron of the Welsh Marches, who had been condemned for high treason, but fortunately escaped to France, and being one of the principal personages of that party, was easily admitted to pay his court to Queen Isabella. The graces of his person and address quickly advanced him in her affections; he soon became her confidant and counsellor, and gaining ground daily upon her heart; he obliged her to sacrifice to her passion all the sentiments of

honor and fidelity to her husband. Hating now the man she had injured, and whom she never respected, she entered ardently in all of Mortimer's conspiracies, and having artfully gotten into her hands the young prince and heir to the kingdom, she resolved on the utter ruin of her husband, the king, as well as his favorite, and she engaged her brother to take part in the same criminal purpose. Her court was daily filled with the expelled barons. Mortimer lived in the most declared intimacy with her, and a correspondence was secretly carried on with the malcontent party in England. When Edward, informed of these alarming circumstances, required her speedily to return with the prince, she replied that she would never set foot in England again, till Despencer was forever removed from his presence and councils, a declaration which procured her great popularity in England, and threw a decent veil over her treasonable actions.

Edward endeavored to put himself in a posture of defence, but it was not easy, in the present state of the kingdom and revenue, to maintain a constant force ready to repel an invasion, which he knew not at what time or place to expect. His brother, the Earl of Kent, a virtuous but weak prince, then in Paris, was encouraged by Charles and Queen Isabella to give encouragement to the invasion, and he prevailed on his elder brother, the Earl of Norfolk, to join him. The Earl of Leicester, brother and heir of the Earl of Lancaster, had too many reasons for his hatred to refuse concurrence. The Archbishop of Canterbury and many of the prelates expressed their satisfaction and approbation of the queen's measures, and many of the most powerful barons, jealous of Despencer's power, were ready to fly to arms, and there needed but the appearance of the queen and prince, with such a body of foreign troops as might protect her against immediate violence, to turn all this tempest, so artfully prepared, against the unhappy Edward. Charles, though he gave countenance and assistance to the faction, was ashamed openly to support the queen and prince against the authority of a husband and father, and Isabella was obliged to court the alliance of some other foreign potentate, from whose dominion she might set out on her in-

tended invasion. For this purpose she affianced young Edward, whose tender age (fourteen) made him incapable of judging the consequences, with Philippa, daughter of the Count of Hainault, and having, by the open assistance of this prince, enlisted in her service three thousand men, she set sail from the harbor of Dort, and landed safely at Orwell, on the coast of Suffolk, on September 24, 1326, where she was met by the Earls of Kent, Norfolk, Leicester, and other leading barons and their followers. To render her cause more acceptable, Isabella declared that the sole purpose of her enterprise was to free the king and kingdom from the tyranny of the Despencers and the Chancellor Baldoc, their creature.

Edward, after trying in vain to rouse the citizens of London to some sense of duty, departed for the west, where he hoped to meet with greater success. He had scarcely left the city when the populace broke out against him and his ministers; they plundered and murdered all who were obnoxious to them, and having made themselves masters of the Tower, entered into a formal association to put to death every one who should oppose the enterprise of the queen and prince. A like spirit was soon communicated to all parts of the kingdom. Edward was hotly pursued to Bristol, then to Wales, and being hard pressed took ship for Ireland, but from stress of weather returned and endeavored to conceal himself in the Welsh mountains, but was soon discovered and given up to the Earl of Leicester, who sent him as prisoner to Kenilworth Castle. Despencer also fell into the hands of his enemies and was executed.

The queen, to avail herself of the prevailing delusion, summoned a parliament in the king's name at Westminster, where, with the power of her army and the authority of her partisans, a charge was drawn up against the king.

“He was accused of incapacity for government; of wasting his time in idle amusements; of neglecting public business; of being swayed by evil counsellors; of having lost, by his misconduct, the kingdom of Scotland and part of Guienne, and even, to swell the charge, the death of some barons and imprisonment of some prelates, convicted of treason, were laid to his account.”

It was in vain to appeal to either law or reason, and the deposition of the king, without any appearing opposition, was voted by Parliament on January 13, 1327, and young Edward was placed on the throne. A deputation was sent to Edward at Kenilworth, to require his resignation, which menaces of terror soon extorted from him.

It was impossible to keep the queen's true character and conduct long from the people. Here a wife at first deserted, next invaded, and then dethroned her husband, and had made her son an instrument in this unnatural treatment of his father; had by lying pretences seduced the nation into a rebellion against their sovereign; had pushed them into violence, and had dishonored them. All those circumstances were so odious in themselves, and formed such a complicated mass of guilt, that the least reflection answered to open men's eyes, and make them detest themselves for the part they had taken.

Then suspicions soon arose of Isabella's criminal connection with Mortimer, and proofs daily broke out of this part of her guilt, which increased the general abhorrence against her; and her hypocrisy in publicly bewailing with tears the king's unhappy fate, was not able to deceive even the most stupid of her adherents. In proportion as the queen became an object of public hatred, the dethroned monarch was regarded with pity, friendship, and veneration, and men became sensible that all his misconduct had been owing to the unavoidable weakness, rather than the depravity of his character.

He was now removed from the custody of the Earl of Leicester by Mortimer's order, and delivered over to Lords Berkley, Mantravers, and Gourney, who were entrusted alternately, each for a month, with the charge of guarding him. While he was in the custody of Berkley he was treated with the kindness due his rank, but when the turn of Mantravers and Gourney came, every species of indignity was practised against him, and at last finding the efforts too slow for laying him in his grave, Mortimer sent secret orders to dispatch him, which was done in the most cruel manner by thrusting a red-hot iron up his fundament, which they inserted through a horn, thus preventing the appearance of any outward marks of violence.

Both the reign and character of Edward are generally misunderstood. Unlike his father, he readily pardoned offenders, such as he would not have suffered to live, and he seems never to have been guilty of the extortions and oppressions that marked the preceding reign. All the charges that his disaffected nobles brought against him only amount to this—that he did not keep over them the stern control to which they had been accustomed, and that he was profuse in rewarding the few whom he felt he could trust. He died in the forty-third year of his age and the twentieth of his reign.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS. — Scotland: Robert I. (Bruce); France: Philip IV., Louis X., Philip V. (the Tall), Charles IV. (the Fair); Emperors of the West: Albert I., Henry VII., Louis IV.

Edward III.—A.D. 1327–1377.

Born at Windsor, November 13, 1312.

Proclaimed king, January 25, 1327.

Crowned, February 1, 1328.

Married, January 24, 1329, Philippa, daughter of William, Count of Hainault.

Issue :

Edward, the Black Prince, married his cousin, Joan, daughter of the Earl of

Kent. Issue :

Edward.

Richard, afterward Richard II.

William, died young.

Lionel, Duke of Clarence, married Elizabeth de Burg.

John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, married Blanche Plantagenet.

Edmund, Earl of Cambridge.

Thomas, Duke of Gloucester.

Isabel.

Joan.

Blanche.

Mary.

Margaret.

EDWARD was the eldest son of Edward II. by his wife Isabella of France; was born at Windsor, November 13, 1312; raised to the throne by Parliament January 25, 1327. It also appointed a Council of Regency to exercise the royal power, consisting of twelve—five prelates and seven noblemen—and the Earl of Lancaster was appointed guardian and protec-

tor of the king's person during his minority, but the queen-mother and Roger Mortimer exercised control over him.

Although disturbances were expected within the kingdom from the weakness of the late reign, and the licentiousness of the barons, they arose from an invasion of a foreign enemy.

Robert Bruce, King of the Scots, declining in years and health, but retaining all the martial spirit which had raised his nation from the lowest ebb of fortune, deemed the present opportunity favorable for invading England, and, with an army of twenty-five thousand men, attacked the northern counties.

Young Edward, burning with a passion for military fame appeared at the head of an army of sixty thousand men, and marched to meet the enemy, who had already advanced as far as Durham, laying everything waste around them. But from the celerity of their movements, they being lightly encumbered, he was not able to overtake them, and having to march over a devastated country, he could not get supplies for his army, so was compelled to retrace his steps for a time. After remaining inactive for a few days, Edward heard the Scots had formed a new encampment on the southern bank of the Ware, as if they intended to await a battle. They had chosen their ground with such judgment that the English saw it would be dangerous to attack them. After a few days they decamped, marching farther up the river, but still keeping the advantage of position.

While the armies lay in this position an incident happened which nearly proved fatal to the young king. Earl Douglass, who had surveyed the situation of the English camp, entered it secretly at night with a body of two hundred picked men, and advanced to the king's tent, for the purpose of killing or making him prisoner, in the midst of his own army, but some of Edward's attendants awaking at the critical moment resisted their attack. His chaplain and chamberlain sacrificed their lives for his safety. The king, after making a gallant defence, escaped in the dark, and Douglass, having lost a large number of his followers, was glad to make a hasty retreat with the remainder.

Soon after the Scotch army decamped, without noise, in the dead of night, and having thus got the start of the English, ar-

rived safe in their own country. Edward, highly incensed at his disappointment, soon after marched south again.

In the year 1328, Mortimer entered into a negotiation with Robert Bruce for a peace between the two countries, proposing that a marriage should be contracted between Joan, sister of Edward, and David, the son and heir of Robert; that the King of Scotland should relinquish all homage paid to England; and that England should acknowledge Robert as an independent sovereign of Scotland. In return for these advantages Robert stipulated to pay thirty thousand marks to England. This treaty was ratified by Parliament.

The princes of the blood, the Earls of Kent, Norfolk, and Lancaster, were united in their councils, and Mortimer entertained great suspicions of their designs against him. In summoning them to Parliament, he strictly prohibited them, in the king's name, from coming attended by an armed force, an illegal, but usual practice in that age.

The three earls, as they approached to the place appointed for the meeting of Parliament, found that though they themselves, in obedience to the king's command, had brought only their usual retinue with them, Mortimer and his party were attended by all their followers in arms. Apprehending designs upon their persons, they retreated, assembled their retainers, and were returning with an army to take vengeance on Mortimer, but becoming frightened, gave up the enterprise, and made their submission to him. Mortimer was now determined to be revenged, and in time, through his emissaries, induced the Earl of Kent to enter into a conspiracy against the king, having first made him believe his brother, King Edward, was still alive and detained in some secret prison. Kent, whose remorse for the part he had acted in the dethronement inclined him to give credit to this intelligence, readily entered into a conspiracy to restore him to liberty, and to reinstate him on the throne.

After this harmless conspiracy was allowed to go a certain length, the earl was seized by Mortimer's order, was accused before Parliament, and condemned, by those slavish barons, to lose his life and fortune. The queen and Mortimer, apprehensive of young Edward's lenity, hurried on the execution, and he

was beheaded the next day, March 9, 1330, and Mortimer's son Geoffrey seized his estates.

It was impossible that such abuses could long escape the observation of a prince endowed with so much spirit and judgment as young Edward, who being now in the eighteenth year of his age, and feeling himself capable of governing, objected to being held in fetters by so insolent a minister; but it required secrecy and caution to subvert his designs and bring him to justice. Edward communicated his wishes to Lord Montacute, who engaged six others to enter into his views. The Castle of Nottingham was chosen for the scene of the enterprise. As the queen-dowager and Mortimer lodged there, and the governor, Sir William Eland, was taken into the conspiracy, the associates were admitted through a subterranean passage at night, and Mortimer, without having it in his power to make any resistance, was seized in a chamber adjoining the queen's. A Parliament was immediately called for his condemnation. He was accused of having usurped regal power; of having procured the death of the late king; of having deceived the Earl of Kent into a conspiracy, and then caused his death; of having obtained exorbitant grants of the royal demesnes; of having dissipated the public treasury, and many other misdemeanors, all of which he was found guilty of and hanged at Elmes on November 29, 1330.

Edward now assumed the reins of government and applied himself, with industry and judgment, to redress all those grievances which had proceeded either from want of authority in the crown, or the late abuses of it. He issued writs to the judges, enjoining them to administer justice, without regard to arbitrary orders from the ministers, and made the barons give their solemn promise, in Parliament, that they would break off all connection with the bands of robbers and murderers so long encouraged by them.

In proportion as the government acquired authority at home, it became formidable to the neighboring nations, and the ambitious spirit of Edward soon found an opportunity of exerting itself. The wise and valiant Robert Bruce was dead, and had left David, his son, a minor under the guardianship of the Earl

of Murray. But Edward gave secret assistance and encouragement to some discontented nobles who, with Edward Baliol, had raised a body of men to invade that country, in 1332, when they succeeded in placing Baliol on the throne. But the following year, either imprudence or necessity made him dismiss the greater part of his English followers, when he was suddenly attacked by Sir Archibald Douglass and other chieftains, and routed, his brother John killed, and he escaped into England in a miserable condition. He thus lost his kingdom by a revolution as sudden as that by which he had acquired it.

Edward, ambitious of recovering the important concessions made by Mortimer to Bruce during his minority, threw off all scruples, and determined to reinstate Baliol, and Parliament consented to the war.

The two armies met at Halidon on July 19, 1333. The Scotch were soon thrown into disorder, and on the fall of Douglass, their general, were totally routed; the whole army fled in confusion, and the English gave little quarter; all the highest nobles were either slain or taken prisoners.

After this fatal blow, the Scotch had no other recourse than instant submission, and Edward, leaving a considerable force with Baliol, returned to England. When Charles IV. of France died without male issue, Edward claimed the throne in right of his mother Isabella, but by a previous enactment it had been declared that all females were forever incapable of succeeding to the crown of France, and Philip de Valois was recognized heir. Still, Edward declared that although his mother was, on account of her sex, incapable of succeeding, he himself, who inherited through her, was liable to no such objection, and could claim by the right of propinquity; and although he obeyed the summons of Philip to cross over to France and do homage to him for his French possessions, it finally resulted in a long and tedious war.

In the year 1337, Edward made preparations for war, and commenced by proposing the subject to his father-in-law, the Count of Hainault; and having gained him in his interests, employed his good offices in drawing the other sovereigns of the neighborhood into his alliance, who could all supply numbers of

warlike troops, and nothing was wanting to make the force complete, but the accession of Flanders, which Edward secured by unusual means.

When all was ready, Edward passed over to that country (1338) taking his queen and her court with him. The names of two of his sons, Lionel of Antwerp, and John of Gaunt, show that they were born there.

At that time the leader of the Flemings was James d'Arteville, a brewer in Ghent, who governed with a more absolute sway than ever had been assumed by any of their lawful sovereigns. He placed and displaced magistrates at pleasure; he was accompanied with a guard, who, on the least signal from him, instantly assassinated any man that happened to fall under his displeasure.

To gain D'Arteville's interest Edward received a grant from his Parliament of twenty thousand sacks of wool to strengthen his hands and to use in gaining the Fleming over to his cause. And he, the most haughty and aspiring prince of the age, never courted an ally with so much assiduity and so many submissions as he employed toward this seditious and criminal tradesman.

D'Arteville, proud of these advances from the king of England, and glad to continue connections with such good customers, who furnished them material for their factories, the chief source of their opulence, readily embraced Edward's cause and invited him over to the Low Countries.

To satisfy the German princes for their alliance with him, and to show some legal authority, he applied to Lewis of Bavaria, then emperor, and received the appointment from him of Vicar of the Empire.

The Flemings, who were vassals of France, pretended like scruples with regard to the invasion of their liege lord, and Edward, by the advice of D'Arteville, assumed the title of King of France, and in virtue of this right, claimed their assistance for dethroning Philip de Valois, the usurper of his kingdom.

Philip made great preparations against the English, and received the alliance of the Pope, the King of Navarre, the Duke

of Brittany, the King of Bohemia, and the Dukes of Lorraine and Austria.

In the year 1339 Edward commenced the war by entering the enemy's country, and encamped at Vironfosse with an army of fifty thousand men, composed almost entirely of foreigners. He ravaged the north of France, but his Flemish allies refused to leave their own country, and the Germans quitted his army as soon as his treasure was exhausted. He was therefore obliged to retire into Flanders, disband his army, and shortly after returned to England to collect a fresh one.

In the meantime a powerful French fleet had put to sea and captured several large English ships, and then stationed themselves in the harbor of Sluys. Edward, when about to return to Flanders, heard of the loss of his ships, among which was one called the "Christopher," in which he had before crossed the sea, and he considered it a point of honor to retake it. Accordingly, though his fleet was much the smallest, he sailed from Ipswich, and on June 24, 1340, came up with the enemy.

In the very front of the line he found the "Christopher" filled with Genoese crossbow men, as well as several other English prizes, the sight of which excited him, his nobles, and his men almost to madness, and they all vowed to capture them or perish. The French ships were chained together, but by standing a short distance out to sea, the English induced them to separate, and then turning on them, a desperate hand-to-hand fight ensued, which lasted all night, and ended in the total defeat of the French, with terrible slaughter.

This was the greatest overthrow the French navy had received since the time of King John, and so decisive was it that it took no further part in the war for full thirty years, and then only because the French had succeeded in obtaining aid from Spain.

After this victory Edward again ravaged the French border, and also defied the king to single combat, styling him only Philip de Valois; but Philip declined to notice the challenge, and a truce for a year followed, which was afterward prolonged for another year.

But ere this second period had expired, the Duke of Brittany died, and two claimants for the duchy arose (1341). One was

Charles of Blois, the nephew of the King of France, and the other was John de Monfort, the late duke's half-brother.

The King of France supported Charles, and Edward took part with John.

At first Charles was successful, and Jane, the wife of his rival, was besieged by him in the castle of Hennebon. She was almost reduced to despair, when she was relieved by a body of English troops, led by Sir Walter Manny. Edward followed soon after, but another truce was agreed on.

This was badly kept by the French, and resulted in war again.

In 1346, Edward, with his son, the Black Prince, then in the fifteenth year of his age, again invaded France. He embarked at Southampton, and was accompanied by a fleet of one thousand sail of all sizes. He carried with him the chief nobility of England, and after a long and tedious voyage, landed at La Hogue, in Normandy, on July 12th. After destroying all the ships in that harbor, as well as Barfleur and Cherbourg, he spread his army over the whole country, and gave them unbounded license of burning and plundering every place they became masters of. Caen fell to his arms, and the citizens were massacred without distinction of age, sex, or condition, the city plundered, and the valuables sent to England.

He next moved on to Rouen in hopes of treating that city in the same manner, but found the bridge over the Seine broken down, and that the King of France had arrived there with his army. He marched along the banks of that river toward Paris, destroying the whole country, towns and villages, as he went; some of his light troops carried their ravages even to the gates of Paris. Edward, now fearing that he might be surrounded by the French army, retired to Flanders, where he was pursued by Philip, commanding an army of one hundred thousand men, but fortunately escaped by finding a ford across the Somme. Seeing his danger in continuing the march over the Plains of Picardy, he determined to meet the enemy. He therefore chose his ground with advantage, near the village of Crécy, and disposed his troops in excellent order. On August 25, 1346, the two armies met, and the French were defeated

with great slaughter. The Kings of Majorca and Bohemia were slain, together with all their attendants. The crest of the latter was three ostrich feathers, and his motto two German words: "Ich dien," "I serve," which the Black Prince, then Prince of Wales, adopted in memory of this great victory, and has ever since been continued by every succeeding Prince of Wales to the present day.

A few months after Crécy, a Scotch army, which had invaded the northern counties of England, was routed at Neville's Cross, and its king, David, taken prisoner, while the withdrawal of the French from the Garonne left England unopposed in Guienne and Poitou.

Edward's aim, however, was not to conquer France, but simply to save England's commerce, by securing the mastery of the Channel. Calais was the great pirate haven; in one year alone twenty-two privateers had sailed from its port, while its capture promised the king an easy base of communication with Flanders, and of operations against France. The siege had lasted a year, and it was not till Philip failed to relieve it that the town was starved into a surrender.

Mersey was granted to the garrison and the people on condition that six of the citizens gave themselves unconditionally into the king's hands.

"On them," said Edward, with a burst of bitter hatred, "I will do my will." When the king's demand was told the people they all began to weep and cry aloud for pity. Then stood up the wealthiest burgess of the town, Eustace de St. Pierre, and spake thus: "My masters, great grief and mishap it were for all to leave such a people as this is, to die from famine or otherwise; and great charity and grace would he win from our Lord, who could defend them from dying. For me, I have great hope in the Lord, that if I can save this people by my death, I shall have pardon for my faults; wherefore, I will be the first of the six, and, of my own will, put myself barefoot in my shirt, and, with a halter round my neck, give myself to the mercy of King Edward." The list of devoted men was soon made up, and the six victims were led before the king, who ordered their heads to be cut off. All his knights and lords

prayed him with tears to have pity on them, but he would not hear, and, with wrath, said: "Hold your peace, it shall be none otherwise; call the headsman. They of Calais have made so many of my men die that they must die themselves!"

Then the noble Queen of England threw herself upon her knees before the king, and said: "Ah, gentle Sire, from the day I passed over sea in great peril, as you know, I have asked for nothing; now pray I and beseech you, with folded hands, for the love of our Lady's Son, to have mercy upon them." Then his heart began to soften, and he said, "Lady, I had rather you had been elsewhere; you pray so tenderly that I dare not refuse you. I give them to you."

The inhabitants of Calais were removed, and the place was peopled by the English; three years afterward the French attempted to regain it by treachery, but were foiled by the sudden arrival of the king, when they gave up the contest as hopeless, and, though sometimes threatened, it was never seriously assailed by them, until the Duke of Guise captured it, in the reign of Queen Mary, two hundred years after.

Edward was now "King of the Sea," but peace with France was as far off as ever. Even the truce which had for eight years been forced on both countries by sheer exhaustion, became at last impossible.

Edward threw three armies at once on the coast of France, but the campaign proved a fruitless one. The Black Prince alone won a distinguished success.

Northern and Central France had by this time fallen into utter ruin; the royal treasury was empty, the fortresses unoccupied, the troops disbanded for want of pay, the country swept by bandits; only the South remained at peace, and the young prince led his army up the Garonne, into what was before one of the fat countries of the world, and they robbed and destroyed everything. With the same aim of plunder, he started the next year for the Loire, but the assembling of a French army under John, who had succeeded Philip of Valois on the throne, forced him to retreat. As he approached Poitiers, however, he found the French, who now numbered sixty thousand men, in his path.

The prince at once took a strong position in the fields of Maupertuis; his force consisted of only eight thousand men, and the danger was great enough to force him to offer the surrender of his prisoners, and an oath not to fight against France for seven years, in exchange for a free retreat. The terms were rejected, and three hundred French knights charged up a narrow lane; it was soon choked with men and horses; while the front ranks of the advancing army fell back before the galling fire of arrows from the hedgerows, in the moment of confusion, a body of English horsemen, posted on a hill to the right, charged suddenly on the French flank, and the prince seized the opportunity to fall bodily on their front. The English archers completed the disorder produced by this sudden attack. The French king was taken prisoner, fighting desperately, and by noon his army poured back in utter rout to the gates of Poitiers. Eight thousand of their number had fallen on the field, three thousand in the flight, and two thousand men-at-arms, with a crowd of nobles, were taken prisoners.

The Black Prince conducted his prisoner, John, King of France, to England. They landed at Southampton on May 15, 1357, and were met by a large number of people of every rank. They journeyed to London, and, while passing through the streets of that city, the royal prisoner was clad in royal apparel, mounted on a white steed.

He was presented to Edward, who advanced to meet him, and he was received with the same courtesy as if he had been a neighboring potentate paying a friendly visit.

Edward first instituted the Order of the Garter to promote a spirit of emulation and obedience, to consist of the sovereign and twenty-five knights. The number has never been enlarged, except for foreign sovereigns and members of the royal family.

Edward, in his desire to shift from his shoulders the responsibility of the war with France, referred to the Commons for counsel on the subject, which they declined giving, and referred him to the great and wise persons of his council. "Whatever they advise we will assent to, and hold it firmly established," they said.

Edward again invaded France, November 4, 1359, with an

army of one hundred thousand men; and having a strong desire of being crowned king of France at Rheims, the usual place where the coronation was performed, he laid siege to that city for six weeks without success. He then laid waste the Province of Champagne, but the Duke of Burgundy saved his province by the payment of one hundred thousand nobles; other places saved themselves in a like manner, while others suffered.

On May 8, 1360, a peace was concluded at Bretigni, in which it was stipulated that King John should be restored to liberty, and should pay three million crowns of gold as ransom, to be discharged in different payments; that Edward should forever renounce all claim to the crown of France and to the Provinces of Normandy, Maine, Touraine, and Anjou, possessed by his ancestors, and should receive in exchange the Provinces of Poitou Xaintonge, L'Agenois Perigord, and other districts, together with Guisnes, Calais, and Montreuil; that the full sovereignty of all these provinces should be vested in the crown of England, and that France should renounce all title, homage, or appeal from them.

In consequence of this treaty the King of France was brought over to Calais, whither Edward soon after repaired, and both princes solemnly ratified the treaty. John left for Boulogne; Edward accompanied him a mile on his journey, and the two kings parted with sentiments of regard.

In 1364 King John visited England, on the business of the treaty, where he soon after sickened and died, on April 8th of that year; he was succeeded by the Dauphin Charles.

Edward was now in his declining years, and the Prince of Wales in delicate health. Charles, taking advantage of these circumstances, summoned the prince to appear at his court at Paris, and there justify his conduct toward his vassals in Guienne. The prince replied that he would come to Paris, but it should be at the head of sixty thousand men. Unfortunately the prince was, from illness, unable to prosecute the war. The English armies at first, under Sir Robert Knolles and the Duke of Lancaster, were successful, but were afterward so harassed that they had to retire, and Edward eventually, by the

necessity of his affairs, had to conclude a truce with the enemy, after almost all his ancient possessions were ravished from him, except Bordeaux and Bayonne, and all his conquests except Calais.

The decline of the king's life was exposed to many mortifications; besides seeing the loss of his foreign dominions, he felt the decay of his authority at home. This prince, who, during the vigor of his youth and age, had been chiefly occupied in war and ambition, began, at an unseasonable period, to indulge himself in pleasure, and now, being a widower, had attached himself to a lady, Alice Pierce, who acquired great power over him, and to satisfy the Parliament he had to put her away from court. The indolence naturally attending old age made him, in a great measure, resign the administration into the hands of his son, the Duke of Lancaster, who, as he was not popular, weakened the affection the people bore the person and government of the king.

Men carried their jealousies very far against the Duke, and as they saw, with much regret, the death of the Prince of Wales every day approaching, they apprehended lest the succession of his son Richard, now a minor, should be defeated by the intrigues of Lancaster, and by the weak indulgence of the old king.

But Edward, in order to satisfy both the people and the prince on this head, declared, in Parliament, his grandson Richard heir and successor to the crown, and thereby cut off all the hopes of the Duke of Lancaster.

Edward, Prince of Wales, after a lingering illness, died June 8, 1376, in the forty-sixth year of his age, leaving an eminent and illustrious character, from his early youth until the day he expired, unstained by any blemish.

The king survived him only a year, and England was at once deprived of both these princes, its chief ornament and support.

Edward built Windsor Castle, and abolished the use of the French language in public deeds and pleadings in courts of law.

He died June 21, 1377, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and the fifty-first of his reign. He married Philippa of Hai-

nault in 1328; by her he had a numerous family. He was succeeded by his grandson, Richard II.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Robert I., David II., Robert II.; France: Charles IV., Philip VI., John, Charles V.; Emperors of the West: Louis IV., Charles IV.

Richard II.—A.D. 1377–1399.

Born at Bordeaux, April 3, 1366.

Crowned, July 16, 1377.

Married, first, Ann, daughter of the Emperor Charles IV.; second, Isabel, daughter of Charles VI. of France. No issue by either marriage.

Deposed, September 30, 1399.

Murdered, February 14, 1400.

RICHARD, son of Edward, Prince of Wales (the Black Prince), and Joan his wife, daughter of his uncle, the Earl of Kent, was born at Bordeaux, France, on April 3, 1366. He was presented to Parliament in 1370 by his grandfather, the king, as his heir and successor; was created Prince of Wales on the death of his father; ascended the throne June 21, 1377, in the eleventh year of his age, and was crowned at Westminster July 16th following.

Although Edward had fixed the succession to the throne, he had taken no care to establish a form of government during the minority of the young king; but Parliament supplied the defect by the appointment of twelve nobles to form a council, from which his uncles were excluded. The government, however, was controlled by one of them, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster.

Edward had left his grandson involved in many dangerous wars. The pretensions of the Duke of Lancaster to the crown of Castile, in right of his wife, brought on trouble between England and the Peninsula.

Scotland, whose throne was now filled by Robert Stuart, nephew to David Bruce, maintained such close connection with France, that war with one crown almost inevitably produced hostilities with the other.

Meanwhile the war with France was carried on in a languishing manner, and produced no good result.

The expenses of these armaments and the usual want of economy attending a minority, greatly exhausted the treasury, and obliged Parliament to impose a new and unusual tax, which was rigorously collected; but the manner of doing so was odious to the people, and resistance was the consequence. At Dartford, one Wattse Tyler struck dead a tax-gatherer who had insulted his daughter, and was made leader of the insurgents, and hence that popular rising is known as Wat Tyler's rebellion. The insurrection spread over nine counties, and partook of the character of the Jacquerie that had occurred in France twenty-three years previously. They marched to London one hundred thousand strong, and assembled on Blackheath, June 12, 1381. The city of London was entered, the Tower seized, and the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Treasurer, and several other persons of eminence were put to death. There was some plundering, and the palace of the Duke of Lancaster was destroyed.

Their early demands made upon the king were considered reasonable, such as the abolition of slavery, freedom of commerce in market towns, without toll or impost, fixed rent on lands, and a general pardon. These requests, which though extremely reasonable in themselves, the nation was not sufficiently prepared to receive, but they were, however, complied with, and this body of insurgents dispersed.

During this transaction another body of the rebels had broken into the Tower. The king, passing through Smithfield slenderly guarded, met Wat Tyler at the head of these rioters, and entered into a conference with him. Tyler, having ordered his companions to retire until he should give them a signal, after which they were to murder all the company except the king, whom they were to keep prisoner, joined the royal retinue, and there behaved so arrogantly to the king that he was slain by Sir William Walworth, Lord Mayor of London.

The rioters, seeing their leader slain, prepared to revenge his death, when Richard, with extraordinary presence of mind, advanced alone toward the enraged multitude. He addressed them as his good people, asked them if they were angry at having lost their leader, saying, "I am your king; I will be

your leader." The rebels, overawed by his presence, implicitly followed him. He led them into the fields to prevent disorder, where he was joined by Sir Robert Knolles and a body of veteran soldiers, whom he would not allow to harm the rioters, but after granting them the same privileges as the former band, dismissed them. Soon after, the nobility, hearing of the king's danger, in which they were all involved, flocked to London with their adherents, and Richard soon found himself at the head of forty thousand men. The rebels had then to submit, their charters and pardons were revoked by Parliament, the common people were reduced to the same slavish condition, and several of the ringleaders were severely punished.

Richard married Anne of Bohemia, daughter of the Emperor Charles IV., January 14, 1382.

He entered Scotland with an army of sixty thousand men. The Scots did not pretend to make resistance against so great a force, but abandoned their country to be pillaged and destroyed by the enemy; but they knew how to compensate their losses by retaliating.

Accordingly, as Richard entered Scotland by Berwick and the east coast, the Scots, to the number of thirty thousand, attended by some French horsemen, entered the borders of England by the west, and carrying their ravages through Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire, collected a rich booty, and then returned quietly to their own country. Richard in the meantime advanced toward Edinburgh, destroying all the towns and villages in his way, and then returned to England without effecting anything in particular.

The Duke of Lancaster being absent in Spain in prosecution of his vain claim to the crown, the Duke of Gloucester, Richard's uncle, made himself master of the kingdom. The king was induced by his favorite, the Earl of Oxford, to attempt to throw off the yoke, but in the contest Gloucester conquered, and, by the assistance of Parliament, a council of fourteen noblemen was appointed, 1386 (all of the duke's faction, except the Archbishop of York), and the sovereign power was transferred to these men for twelve months.

The king, who had now reached the twenty-first year of his

age, was in reality dethroned, and the aristocracy was rendered supreme.

The following year he met, by appointment, the principal judges of the land of Nottingham, and proposed certain questions to them for their opinion, which, from either the influence of his authority, or of reason, they made no scruple of answering in the way he desired.

They declared the commission was derogatory to the royalty and prerogative of the king, that those who procured it, or advised the king to consent to it, were punishable with death; and those who compelled him were guilty of treason, and that those were equally guilty who should persevere in maintaining it, and that the king had the right of dissolving Parliament at his pleasure. The Duke of Gloucester and his adherents soon got intelligence of this secret consultation, and on the king's arrival in London, assembled their forces at Haringay Park with a power Richard and his ministers were not able to resist. The lords of the council then appeared in London with an army of forty thousand, and the accused ministers who had advised the king were cited to appear before Parliament to answer; they were found guilty of conspiracy, and either executed or banished the kingdom, and their estates confiscated, February 3, 1388.

In less than a year, Richard, who was then in his twenty-third year, declared in council, May 3, 1389, that as he had now attained the full age that entitled him to govern, by his own authority, his kingdom and household, he resolved to exercise his right of sovereignty, and when no one ventured to contradict so reasonable an intention, he deprived the Archbishop of Canterbury of the office of Chancellor, and conferred it on the Bishop of Winchester, together with the other members of the council, and even the Duke of Gloucester was removed for a time, and the king exercised with moderation the authority he had resumed.

The Duke of Lancaster had returned from Spain, and counterbalanced the authority of his younger brother, Gloucester. The wars, meanwhile, which Richard had inherited with his crown, still continued, though interrupted by frequent truces,

and were conducted with little vigor, owing to the weakness of all parties. At last the English and French courts began to think in earnest of a lasting peace, but found it difficult to adjust their different pretensions; they were content to establish a truce, and on May 27, 1394, a twenty-five years' truce was agreed on. Shortly afterward his queen, Anne, died.

Richard discovered a conspiracy to deprive him of the throne, of which his uncle Gloucester was the head. He immediately saw that either his own ruin or Gloucester's was inevitable, and resolved by a hasty blow to prevent the accomplishment of the design against himself. He ordered the arrest of the Duke; hurried him on board ship and had him carried over to Calais, where alone he could be safely detained in custody. Shortly after, a warrant was issued to the governor of that fortress to bring over the Duke of Gloucester for trial, but that officer answered that the duke had just died suddenly of apoplexy; and the general opinion was he had been murdered by the king's order, October, 1397.

Richard married Isabella of France, October, 1396. A quarrel took place between the Dukes of Hereford and Norfolk, the former better known as Henry of Bolingbroke, and cousin to Richard, a duel was the consequence, but the king prevented and banished both from the kingdom for a space of ten years. On February 3d, the following year, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, Hereford's father, died, and the banished son desired to be put in possession of the estate; but Richard, fearing to strengthen the hands of a man he had already so much offended, applied to Parliament and had the estate confiscated to the crown, and the banishment made perpetual. In May, 1399, he sailed for Ireland, in order to revenge the death of his cousin, the Earl of March, the presumptive heir to the crown. The Duke of York was left guardian of the kingdom, a place to which his birth entitled him, but which he was quite unfitted for, from his slender abilities and his natural connection with the Duke of Lancaster, who, although banished, had acquired by his conduct and abilities the esteem of the nation. He was also connected with most of the principal nobility—by blood, alliance, or friendship—and as the injury done him by the king might,

in its consequences, affect all of them, he easily brought them, by a sense of common interest, to take part in his resentment.

The people, who found nothing in the king's person which they could love or revere, easily transferred to Lancaster that attachment which the death of the Duke of Gloucester had left without any fixed direction.

On July 4, 1399, Henry, Duke of Lancaster, with a retinue of sixty persons, embarked at Nantz and landed at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire, where he was met by the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland. He there took a solemn oath that he had no other purpose in this invasion than to recover the Duchy of Lancaster, unjustly detained from him, and invited all his friends in England, and all lovers of their country, to assist him in this reasonable and moderate pretension.

Every place was now in commotion; the malcontents flew to arms; London showed symptoms of rebellion, and Henry's army increasing on every day's march soon amounted to sixty thousand combatants.

The Duke of York assembled an army of forty thousand men, but they were entirely destitute of loyalty and zeal to the royal cause, and more inclined to Henry's party, and the duke therefore readily hearkened to a message from Henry, who entreated him not to oppose a loyal and humble suppliant, in the recovery of his legal patrimony, and the guardian duke declared publicly that he would second his nephew in so reasonable a request. His army embraced with acclamations the same cause, and the Duke of Lancaster, reinforced by them, was now entirely master of the kingdom. He hastened to Bristol, where some of the king's ministers had thrown themselves, and soon obliged the place to surrender.

The king, hearing of this invasion, hastened over from Ireland, and landed at Milford Haven with a body of twenty thousand men, but they soon deserted, leaving only six thousand men who followed his standard.

He immediately fled to the island of Anglesea, with the intention to embark either for Ireland or France, and there wait a favorable opportunity.

Henry sent to him the Duke of Northumberland with the

strongest professions of loyalty and submission; that nobleman, by treachery and false oaths, made himself master of the king's person, and carried him prisoner to his enemy at Flint Castle, on September 1, 1399. Richard was conducted to London by the Duke of Lancaster, who was there received with acclamation by the mutinous populace.

It is said that the Recorder met him on the road, and in the name of the city entreated him, for the public safety, to put Richard to death, with all his adherents, who were prisoners, but the duke prudently determined to make many others participate in his guilt before he would proceed to such extremities. For this purpose he issued writs of election in the king's name, and appointed the immediate meeting of a parliament at Westminster.

Such of the peers as were most devoted to the king, either fled or were imprisoned, and no opponents, even among the barons, dared to appear against this scene of outrage and violence.

The Duke of Lancaster, sensible that he was now master of the situation, began to carry his views to the crown itself, and he consulted with his partisans concerning the most proper means of effecting his daring purpose.

He first extorted a resignation from Richard, but as he knew this deed would appear the result of force and fear, he determined, notwithstanding the danger of the precedent to himself and posterity, to have him solemnly deposed by Parliament for his pretended tyranny and misconduct, and a charge of thirty-three articles was accordingly drawn up and presented to that body.

When the charge against Richard was presented to Parliament, one man alone, the Bishop of Carlisle, had the courage to appear in defence of his unhappy master, and he was immediately arrested by the order of the Duke, and sent a prisoner to the Abbey of St. Albans.

The thirty-three articles were in one meeting voted against Richard unanimously, and he was deposed by the suffrages of both houses, and by the united voice of Lords and Commons, and Henry was placed on the throne September 30, 1399.

The Earl of Northumberland soon after asked, in the House of Peers, what advice they would give the king as to the disposal of Richard, as Henry was resolved to spare his life; they unanimously replied that he should be imprisoned under strict guard, in some secret place, and should be deprived of all intercourse with any of his friends or partisans.

The manner or time of his death is unknown, but it is thought he was murdered by his guards in Pomfret Castle, some time in October, 1399. He died in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and twenty-third of his reign. He left no posterity, either legitimate or illegitimate.

The reign of Richard was a remarkable period in the constitutional history of England; and still more so in religion and literature, from the eminent names of Wycliff, Chaucer, and Gower, who were patronized by him. The modern English language is usually dated from his reign.

He was succeeded by Henry IV.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Robert II., Robert III.; France: Charles V., Charles VI.; Emperor of the West, Charles IV.



THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

A.D. 1399-1461.

THE House of Lancaster, or the "Red Rose," was descended from the House of Plantagenet, and originated with John of Gaunt, fifth son of Edward III.

Edward had six sons by his queen, Philippa of Hainault. His eldest son was Edward, the Black Prince, who died during his father's lifetime; he left a son, Richard, afterward Richard II., who died without issue.

Edward's third son was Lionel, Duke of Clarence, who was first married to Elizabeth de Burgh, daughter and heiress of the Earl of Ulster, by whom he had only one daughter, Philippa, who married Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March.

His fourth son was John of Gaunt—so called from the place of his birth—who was created Duke of Lancaster November 13, 1362, and died February 3, 1399. He was succeeded by his son, Henry of Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford, who afterward illegally possessed the throne.

The fifth son was Edmund, Duke of York, and founder of the house of that name, or of the "White Rose," and he was succeeded by his son Edward, who fell at Agincourt October

24, 1415, whose successor was his nephew Richard, son and heir of Anne Mortimer, great-granddaughter of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, Edward's third son. It was by virtue of this descent that the House of York alleged its superior right to that of Lancaster, which was descended from the fourth son of Edward III.

Parliament thus set aside the legitimate heir to the throne, Roger Mortimer, Earl of March, a former Parliament having settled the crown in that line, and in accordance with the received laws of inheritance.

Henry IV.—A.D. 1399-1413.

Born at Bolingbroke, 1367.

Crowned, October 13, 1399.

Married, first, Lady Mary Bohun, 1380. Issue :

Henry, Prince of Wales, his successor.

Thomas, Duke of Clarence.

John, Duke of Bedford.

Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester.

Blanche, married Duke of Bavaria.

Philippa, married King of Denmark.

HENRY IV., founder of the royalty of the House of Lancaster, was born at Bolingbroke, Lincolnshire, April 4, 1367. He was eldest son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, and grandson of Edward III., by Blanche, daughter and heiress of Henry Plantagenet, Duke of Lancaster, great-grandson of Henry III. His first title was Earl of Derby. At the age of fifteen he married Mary Bohun, daughter of the Earl of Hereford, who was descended from Edward I.

In his youth, Henry delighted in tournaments and adventures. In 1390 he went to the assistance of the Teutonic knights, serving in Prussia and Lithuania; he then went to Barbary, returning to England for a brief season. In July, 1392, he set out for Palestine, and travelled by the way of Dantzic, Königsberg, Vienna, Friuli, and Venice, sailing from the last named place to Rhodes, whence he returned to England the following year, visiting by the way, Venice, Milan, Piedmont, Savoy, and France. He was created Duke of Hereford in 1397 by Richard II.

In 1398 he brought an accusation of traitorous designs against the Duke of Norfolk, who denied the charge, and appealed to the trial by battle. The arrangements were completed, when the king put an end to the contest, banishing both parties from the kingdom for the space of ten years. Subsequently, Hereford's term of exile was made for life, when, by his father's death, he became Duke of Lancaster, and his estates were seized by the crown.

Henry having been called to the throne by Parliament, on September 30, 1399, immediately dissolved Parliament, and, six days afterward, called a new one, but, without any election, summoned the same members. They were employed in the usual task of reversing every deed of the opposite party. All the acts of the last Parliament of Richard, which had been confirmed by their oaths and by a papal bull, were abrogated, and all the acts, passed under the Gloucester rule, which had been abrogated by Richard, were enacted. The peers who had accused Gloucester, Arundel, and Warwick, and who had received higher titles for that service, were now degraded.

The king, however, soon realized that his throne had a very precarious foundation, which, from its very nature, was liable to be overthrown by every faction of the great, or prejudice of the people. He had a present advantage over his competitor: the heir of the House of Mortimer, who had been declared in Parliament heir to the crown, was a boy of seven years of age; his friends consulted his safety by keeping silence with regard to his title. Henry detained him and his younger brother in honorable custody at Windsor Castle, but had reason to fear that he would ultimately secure the attachment of the people, who would then realize the fraud, violence, and injustice by which he had been excluded from the throne.

In his first parliament Henry foresaw the danger attending the station he had assumed, and the obstacles he would meet with in governing an unruly aristocracy, always divided by faction, and, at present, inflamed with resentments consequent on such recent convulsions.

The peers, on their first assembling, broke out into violent quarrels against each other; forty gauntlets, the pledges of

furious battle, were thrown on the floor of the house by noble-men who gave mutual challenges. Charges of falsehood and treason resounded from all quarters. The king prevented hostilities, but was unable to lead the adversaries into amicable relations.

It was not long before these disaffections became overt acts. The Earls of Rutland, Kent, and Huntingdon, and Lord Spencer, who were degraded from their respective titles of Albemarle, Surrey, Exeter, and Gloucester, conferred on them by Richard, entered into a conspiracy, together with the Earl of Salisbury and Lord Lumley, for raising an insurrection and seizing the king's person at Windsor. The treachery of Rutland gave warning of the danger. The king suddenly withdrew to London, and the conspirators, who arrived at Windsor with a body of five hundred horse, were foiled in this blow, on which all the success of their enterprise depended.

Henry appeared next day at Kingston-upon-Thames, at the head of twenty thousand men, mostly drawn from the city, and the conspirators, unable to resist his power, at once dispersed, with the view of raising followers in the several counties respectively the seat of their interest. But the adherents of the king were hot in their pursuit, and everywhere opposed themselves to their progress.

All the leaders were seized, at different cities, and beheaded, and when the quartered bodies of these unhappy men were brought to London no less than eighteen bishops and thirty-two mitred abbots joined the populace and met them, with the most indecent marks of joy and exultation. But the spectacle the most shocking to every one who retained any sentiment of either honor or humanity, was when the Earl of Rutland appeared, carrying on a pole the head of Lord Spencer, his brother-in-law, which he presented in triumph to the king, as a testimony of his loyalty. This infamous man—who was soon after Duke of York, by the death of his father, and first prince of the blood—had been instrumental in the murder of his uncle, the Duke of Gloucester; he then deserted Richard, by whom he was trusted; had conspired against the life of Henry, to whom he had sworn allegiance; had betrayed his

associates, whom he had seduced into the conspiracy, and now displayed, in the face of the world, these badges of his multiplied dishonor.

Henry, realizing that the execution of these conspirators might only seem to give security to his throne, determined not to increase those numerous enemies that everywhere surrounded him, and finding himself possessed of a throne by so precarious a title, determined to court the good-will and assistance of the clergy, who were now troubled by the Lollards; and although his father, the Duke of Lancaster, had been the greatest patron and supporter of Wycliffe, Henry now became the persecutor of the reformers. The statute for the burning of heretics was passed by Parliament in 1401, and it was not allowed to remain a dead letter. William Santré, rector of St. Osithes, in London, was tried for his opinions, and condemned by convocation at Canterbury. His sentence was ratified by both houses, the king issued his writ for the execution, and he atoned for his opinions by the penalty of fire, the first instance of the kind in England, and one more horror added to the crimes at that time but too familiar to the people.

An insurrection breaking out in Wales, led by Owen Glendower, descended from the ancient princes of that country, a troublesome and tedious war was thereupon kindled, and Glendower committed great devastations. Sir Edward Mortimer led the retainers of his family against him, but was defeated and taken prisoner. At the same time the Earl of March, his nephew—although a mere boy—took the field, with his followers, fell also into Glendower's hands, and was carried by him into Wales. As Henry dreaded and hated all the family of March, he refused the Earl of Northumberland permission to treat for his ransom.

The uncertainty in which Henry's affairs stood in regard to France, as well as his troubles at home, tempted the Scots to make incursions into England, and Henry, desirous of taking revenge upon them, but afraid of rendering his government unpopular, by requiring large supplies, summoned a council of the peers at Westminster without the commons, and laid before them the state of affairs. They voluntarily undertook to attend

the king on his expedition against Scotland, each of them at the head of a certain number of retainers.

Henry conducted this army to Edinburgh, of which he easily made himself master, and he there summoned Robert III. to do homage to him for his crown. But, finding the Scotch would neither submit nor give him battle, he returned in three weeks after making this useless bravado, and disbanded his army.

The following year, 1402, the Earl of Douglas, at the head of twelve thousand men, and attended by the first nobility of Scotland, made an invasion into England, and committed great devastation on the northern counties. On his return home he was met by the Percys at Homeldon; a fierce battle ensued, the Scotch were entirely routed, and Douglas and most of the nobility were taken prisoners.

When Henry heard of the victory he sent orders to the Earl of Northumberland not to ransom his prisoners, which that nobleman regarded as his right by the usages of war, and by this policy he gave fresh unbrage to the Percy family.

The obligations which Henry owed to Northumberland were of a kind most likely to produce ingratitude on the one side and discontent on the other, and the king naturally became jealous of the power that placed him upon the throne. The impatient spirit of Harry Percy, and the factious disposition of the Earl of Worcester, a younger brother of Northumberland, inflamed the discontent of that nobleman, and the precarious title of Henry tempted him to seek revenge by overturning the throne which he had first established. He therefore entered into a correspondence with Glendower, and made an alliance with him. He gave liberty to Douglas, and roused up all his partisans to arms, and such was the authority of the great families in those days, that the same men whom he had recently conducted against Richard now followed his standard in opposition to Henry. Just as the war was ready to break out, Northumberland was seized with a sudden illness at Berwick, and young Percy, taking command of the troops, marched toward Shrewsbury, in order to join his forces with those of Glendower.

Fortunately for the king, he had a small army on foot, with

which he had intended to act against the Scotch, and, knowing the importance of celerity in all civil wars, he instantly hurried down, that he might give battle to the rebels. He approached Percy near Shrewsbury, before that nobleman was joined by Glendower, and the policy of one leader and the impatience of the other made them hasten to a general engagement.

The evening before the battle Percy sent a manifesto to Henry, recapitulating every evil act of his reign, from his landing at Ravenspur, together with all the promises he had broken, and, renouncing his allegiance, boldly defied the king. This manifesto was well calculated to inflame the quarrel between the two parties; the bravery of the two leaders promised an obstinate engagement, and the equality of the armies promised a great effusion of blood on both sides.

The battle of Shrewsbury was fought on July 21, 1403. Henry exposed his person in the thickest of the fight. His gallant son signalized himself in this his first battle, and even when badly wounded in the face with an arrow would not quit the field. Percy supported the fame which he had acquired in many a well-fought field, and Lord Douglas, his ancient enemy, and now his friend, still appeared his rival. Amidst the horror and confusion of the day this nobleman performed feats of valor almost incredible. He seemed determined that Henry should that day fall by his hand. He sought him constantly on the field. Henry, however, to elude the attacks of the enemy upon his person, or to encourage his own men by the belief of his presence everywhere, had accoutred several captains in the royal garb, and the sword of Douglas rendered this honor fatal to many.

But while the armies were contending in this furious manner, the death of Percy, by an unknown hand, decided the battle. The Royalists prevailed, and the Earls of Worcester and Douglas were taken prisoners. The former was beheaded, and the latter treated as a prisoner of war.

The Earl of Northumberland, having recovered from his sickness, had levied a fresh army, and was on his march to join his son, but, hearing of the defeat at Shrewsbury, he dismissed his forces, and came with a small retinue to the king at York. He

pretended that his sole intention in arming was to mediate between the parties. Henry thought proper to accept the apology, and granted him a pardon for his offence. The other rebels were also treated with leniency, except the chief authors of the insurrection.

The Earl of Northumberland, though he had been pardoned, knew that he never would be trusted, and in 1405 formed a coalition with the Earl of Nottingham, son of the Duke of Norfolk, and the Archbishop of York, brother to the Earl of Wiltshire, whom Henry, then Duke of Lancaster, had beheaded at Bristol. They harbored a violent hatred against Henry, and, determined to seek revenge, betook themselves to arms before Northumberland was prepared to join them. The Earl of Westmoreland, whose power lay in the neighborhood, approached them with an inferior force near Shipton, in Yorkshire. Afraid to hazard an action, he determined to subdue them by stratagem, which nothing but the greatest folly on their part could have rendered successful. He desired a conference with the archbishop and earl, between the armies; he heard their grievances with great patience; he begged them to propose the remedies, and approved of all they suggested. He granted them all their demands, in the name of the king, and when he saw that they were pleased with the concessions, proposed that as amity was now effected, it would be better to dismiss the forces on both sides, which otherwise would prove a burden to the country. The archbishop and earls immediately gave directions for that purpose, and their troops were disbanded on the field. But Westmoreland, who had secretly issued contrary orders to his army, seized the two rebels and carried them to the king. They were tried, condemned, and executed. This was the first instance in England of capital punishment inflicted on a bishop. The Earl of Northumberland, on hearing this intelligence, fled into Scotland.

Henry now turned his arms against Glendower, over whom his son, the Prince of Wales had obtained some advantages (1407). But that enemy, more troublesome than dangerous, still found means of defending himself in his fastnesses, and of eluding, though not resisting, all the force of England.

Northumberland and Bardolf, impatient of their exile, now entered the North in hopes of raising the people to arms, but found the country in such a position as rendered all their attempts unsuccessful. Sir Thomas Rokesby, Sheriff of Yorkshire, levied some forces, attacked the invaders at Bramham, and gained a victory in which Northumberland and Bardolf were slain. This event, joined to the death of Glendower, which happened soon after, freed Henry from all his domestic enemies. This prince, who had mounted the throne by such unjustifiable means, and held it by such an exceptionable title, had by his celerity, valor, prudence, and address, accustomed the people to the yoke, and had attained a greater ascendancy over his haughty barons than the law alone, not supported by these active qualities, was ever able to confer.

About this time fortune gave Henry an advantage over one who by his situation was most likely to disturb his government. Robert III., King of Scotland, was a prince of slender capacity, whose brother, the Duke of Albany, had assumed the government of the state. Not satisfied with his present authority the duke entertained the criminal purpose of making away with his brother's sons, and acquiring the crown for his own family. He threw into prison David, Duke of Rothsay, his eldest nephew, who there perished with hunger without the knowledge of the king. James alone, the younger brother of David, now stood between the tyrant and the throne, and King Robert, sensible of his son's danger, put him on board ship secretly, with the purpose of sending him to France, and intrusting him to the care of that friendly power. Unfortunately the vessel was taken by the English, and the young prince, then in his ninth year, was carried to London, and although there existed at that time a truce between the two kingdoms Henry refused to give him up. Robert, worn out with cares and infirmities, and unable to bear the shock of this last misfortune, soon after died (1406).

The feeling between France and England during the whole of Henry's reign was extremely bitter. Richard had married as his second wife, Isabella, a daughter of Charles, who was popular in France, and the jealousies and civil commotions of both countries prevented either from taking advantage of the

other. But in the year 1411, comparative quiet being maintained in England, Henry thought he would give a new direction to the restless spirit of his people, to prevent their breaking out in domestic wars and disorders.

That he might unite policy with force, he first entered into a treaty with the Duke of Burgundy, and sent that prince a small body of troops, to support him against his enemies. Receiving more advantageous proposals from the Duke of Orleans, he dispatched a larger force to support him, but the leaders of both factions having made a temporary accommodation, the interests of the English were sacrificed, and this attempt of Henry's proved in the end vain and fruitless. The state of his health and shortness of his reign prevented him from renewing the attempt.

Henry was so much employed in defending his crown, which he had obtained by unwarrantable means, that he had little leisure to look abroad, or perform any action which might redound to the honor or advantage of the nation. In his youth he acquired vast estates by his marriage with the heiress of the Earl of Hereford, but was left a widower at an early age. After he became king, he married Joanna of Navarre, the widow of John, Duke of Brittany, who was an object of dislike to her step-son Henry V., and was imprisoned by him.

He trained his sons to take an active part in public affairs, and the younger ones became valuable assistants to his successor in his wars. Thomas, Duke of Clarence, was the Lieutenant of Ireland; John, Duke of Bedford, upheld the English rule in France, and Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, fought at Agincourt.

Unquiet as it was, Henry's reign is remarkable for the rapid growth of popular privileges, and the consequent decline of royal prerogatives. His Parliament showed little confidence in him. They remonstrated freely on any subject that displeased them, forced him to dismiss favorite officers of his household, who happened to be obnoxious to them, and obliged him to allow that to the Commons belonged, exclusively, the right of imposing taxes, and controlling the public expenditure, and setting aside illegal grants. They sometimes showed an extra-

vagant jealousy of the church, and a desire to confiscate its possessions, but Archbishop Arundel defeated the project.

The character of Henry may be clearly traced in his actions. Enterprising, and a seeker of popularity in his youth, he let no scruples of honor or conscience stand in his way when he had an end to attain, and he was equally unscrupulous and cruel in getting rid of even his most devoted adherents, when once they had ceased to be useful to him. No ties of kindred could mitigate his cruelty, several of the nobles put to death by him being very near connections, and his usurpation was the direct cause of the disastrous struggle known as the War of the Roses, by which the English nobility were almost annihilated. His health declined some months before his death; he was subject to fits, which sometimes deprived him of his senses, and though he was in the prime of life, his end was visibly approaching.

In his last days he had the mortification to learn that his eldest son seemed little inclined to wait for his death ere he should possess himself of the crown that had been so unjustly acquired. At length he fell in a fit while at his devotions in Westminster Abbey, and he died, unregretted, a few days after, March 20, 1413, in the forty-sixth year of his age and fourteenth of his reign, and was succeeded by his son Henry.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Robert III., James I.; France: Charles VI.; Emperors of the West: Wenceslaus, Rupert, Sigismund.

Henry V.—A.D. 1413-1422.

Born at Monmouth, 1388.

Crowned, April 9, 1413.

Married Katrine, daughter of Charles VI., King of France. Issue:
Henry, Prince of Wales.

HENRY, the eldest son of Henry IV. and his wife, Mary de Bohun, and the second king of the Lancaster branch of the Plantagenet line, was born at Monmouth, August 9, 1388.

Little is known of his early childhood. On his father's banishment, young Henry was seized by Richard II., who took him with the expedition to Ireland, and there knighted him. When the king returned to England to meet Henry's father, he

placed him in the Castle of Trim. His father, on usurping the throne, caused him to be liberated and brought over to London; he was then created Prince of Wales, October 15, 1399.

He took part in the different wars waged against the Welsh insurgents, was made Lieutenant of the Principality, held an important command in the battle of Shrewsbury, and defeated the rebels at Grosmont, March 11, 1405. He was with the expedition sent into Scotland, and received the thanks of Parliament for his conduct, was made Constable of Dover and Warden of the Cinque Ports in 1409, and in the following year Captain-General of Calais.

The stories respecting the irregularities of his life about this time rest upon very insufficient evidence, but he seems to have been, both in theory and practice, above the morality of his time.

Henry was proclaimed king on the 21st of March, 1413, his accession causing great rejoicings.

The first step taken by the young king confirmed the good opinion entertained of him. He called together his former companions, and acquainted them with his intended reformation, exhorted them to imitate his example, but warned them not to approach him until they had given proofs of their reformation; he then dismissed them with liberal presents. The wise ministers of his father, who had checked his riots, were received with the greatest marks of favor and confidence, and the Chief-Justice, who had once imprisoned him, was exhorted to persevere in the same rigorous and impartial execution of the laws. The surprise of all who expected an opposite behavior added to the general satisfaction, and the character of the young king appeared brighter than if it had never been shaded by any errors.

He was not only anxious to repair his own misconduct, but also to make amends for those iniquities into which policy or the necessity of affairs had betrayed his father.

He expressed the deepest sorrow for the fate of the unhappy Richard, did justice to his memory, and even performed his funeral obsequies with pomp and solemnity, and cherished all those who distinguished themselves by their loyalty and attachment to him. Instead of continuing the restraints which the

jealousy of his father had imposed on the Earl of March, he received that young nobleman with great courtesy and favor, by which means he so securely gained the friendship of his competitor that he remained ever after sincerely attached to him, and gave him no disturbance in his future government. The family of Percy was restored to its fortune and honors, and the king seemed desirous to bury all party distinctions in oblivion. Those of the former reign who had been advanced for their blind zeal to the Lancastrian cause more than for their merits, gave place everywhere to men of more honorable character; virtue now appeared to have its own reward; all men were unanimous in their attachment to the king, and the defects of his title were forgotten amidst the personal regard which was universally paid to him.

The only difficulty now was in ecclesiastical matters. The Lollards were becoming formidable, not only to the church, but to the civil authority, and Henry was determined to execute the laws against them, particularly as he was attached to Catholicism, both from conviction and supposed interest. The head of the sect was Lord Cobham, a nobleman who had distinguished himself by his valor and military talents. His high character and zeal pointed him out to the Archbishop of Canterbury as the proper victim of ecclesiastical severity, whose punishment would strike terror to the whole party. He applied to Henry for permission to indict Cobham. The generous nature of the king was averse to such sanguinary methods of conversion, and he himself endeavored, by a conversation, to reconcile him to the Catholic faith, but he found that nobleman obstinate in his opinions. Henry's principles of toleration could carry him no farther, and he then gave full reins to ecclesiastical severity against the inflexible heretics. The primate indicted Cobham, and he was condemned to the flames for his erroneous opinions, but subsequently made his escape. Being concerned in an insurrection some time afterward, he again escaped, but was taken prisoner four years afterward, when he was tried as a traitor, found guilty, and hanged.

A conspiracy to place the Earl of March on the throne was discovered by Henry at its inception, 1415, and the Earl of

Cambridge—second son of the late Duke of York—Lord Scrope, and Sir Thomas Gray, the principal leaders, were tried, found guilty, and executed.

The Duke of Burgundy being expelled from France by a combination of the princes, applied to Henry for assistance, who on the 14th of August, 1415, put to sea with an army of thirty thousand men, and landed near Harfleur. He immediately began the siege of that place, which was valiantly defended, but fell on the 18th of September. Henry, taking possession of the town, placed a garrison in it, expelled all the French, with the intention of peopling it anew by English immigration. The fatigues of the siege and the unusual heat of the season had so weakened the English army, that Henry could enter into no further undertaking, and was obliged to think of returning to England.

He had dismissed his transports, which could not anchor in open roads upon an enemy's coast, and he lay under the necessity of marching to Calais before he could reach a place of safety. A French army of fifty-five thousand men was by this time assembled in Normandy—a force, if prudently handled, sufficient either to trample down the English in the open field, or to harass and reduce to nothing their small army before they could finish so long and difficult a march. Henry therefore offered to sacrifice his conquest of Harfleur for a safe passage to Calais; but his proposal being rejected, determined to make his way through all opposition.

Not to discourage or fatigue his army, he made slow and deliberate journeys until he reached the Somme, but he found the ford rendered impassable by the precaution of the French, and guarded by a strong body on the opposite bank. He was obliged to march higher up the river, was continually harassed on his march by flying parties, and saw large bodies of troops on the other side, ready to oppose every attempt. His provisions were getting scarce, his supply cut off, his soldiers languished with sickness and fatigue, and his affairs appeared to be reduced to a desperate situation. At this juncture he was so fortunate as to seize, by surprise, a passage near St. Quentin, which had not been sufficiently guarded, and he safely carried

over his army. Henry then bent his march northward, to Calais, but was still exposed to great and imminent danger from the enemy, who had also passed the Somme and threw themselves fully in his way, with the purpose of intercepting his retreat. After he had passed the small river of Ternois, 25th of October, he was surprised to observe from the heights the whole French army drawn up on the plains of Agincourt, and so posted that it was impossible for him to proceed on his march without coming to an engagement.

Nothing could be more unequal than a battle with the opposing force. The English army was little more than half the number which had disembarked at Harfleur, and they now labored under every disadvantage. The enemy was four times their number, was headed by the dauphin with all the princes of the blood, and was plentifully supplied with everything requisite. Henry, with great prudence, drew up his army on a narrow ground between two woods, which guarded each flank, and patiently waited the attack of the enemy.

But the impetuous valor of the French nobility, and a vain confidence of superior numbers, brought on a fatal action, which proved the source of infinite calamities to their country. From the nature of the ground, the narrow space in which they were pent up prevented them from recovering order.

A panic soon took the place of their former rash confidence, and they hastened back, throwing the rest of their army into great confusion. It was now the turn of the English to become the assailants. While the archers steadily pressed on in the centre of the line, the king with his knights and men-at-arms dashed at the squadrons where the banners of the French princes were displayed, and a furious hand-to-hand contest ensued. Henry was conspicuous from the crown on his helmet, and wherever he moved the fight was the fiercest. His young brother, the Duke of Gloucester, was wounded, and Henry, while standing over him to protect him, was brought on his knees by a sword-cut, that split one of the jewels of his crown. His cousin, the Duke of York, was killed near him, the close of his career being thus more honorable than his life. About twenty French knights, led by the Lord of Croy, charged in a

compact body, having sworn to capture or kill the king, but they were all killed instead. While this was going on, the Duke of Alençon, one of the French princes, joined in the fray, but, after exchanging a blow or two with the king he was hurled from his horse and killed, though Henry called out to spare his life.

The battle had now lasted three hours; seven French princes and a hundred great nobles lay dead on the field, as well as eight thousand knights and gentlemen, but the loss among the common men was comparatively small, as the knights and nobles hurried forward, and thus sheltered them by becoming themselves mere targets for the English archers.

The fall of the Duke of Alençon disheartened his knights, and they fled from the field, followed by the rear-guard, although it had not been engaged, and was alone more numerous than the English army.

The prisoners taken were the Dukes of Bourbon and Orleans, Arthur of Brittany, and more than fifteen hundred knights and nobles, with ten thousand men; but many of these were put to death after the battle had ceased, in consequence of an attack made on the baggage-guard of the English by a party of French fugitives led by Robinet de Borneville. This was at first thought to be a renewal of the action, and every man was ordered to kill his prisoners. The order was reluctantly obeyed, and when Henry learned the truth he commanded that the slaughter should cease.

The loss of the English, unlike that of the French, fell principally on the common men, sixteen hundred of whom were slain, but only a few knights and nobles.

Henry immediately after the battle continued his march to Calais, where he carried his prisoners, fully ten thousand men, and from thence sailed for England. He made a peace with the enemy, and for two years afterward no English troops appeared in France.

For the next two years France was exposed to all the furies of civil war, and Henry thought it a good time to revive the claim of the English sovereign to the crown of France, although it was far less strong in his person than that of Edward III. His

determination is attributed to the advice of the clergy, who wished to draw off the attention of the people from the affairs of the church.

He therefore raised an army, and on August 1, 1418, landed in Normandy at the head of twenty-five thousand men, and met with little opposition from any quarter. He made himself master of Falaise, Evreux, and Caen; Pont de l'Arch opened its gates. Having subdued all lower Normandy, and received a reinforcement of fifteen thousand men from England, he began the siege of Rouen, which was defended by a garrison of four thousand men, seconded by all its inhabitants.

Henry, in the meantime, was ready to treat with either of the two parties who had for a long time been opposed to each other in France—the dauphin (King Charles being almost imbecile) on one side, and the Duke of Burgundy and the queen on the other, they having possession of the king's person. The terms proposed on all sides were perpetually changing, the events of the war, and the intrigues of the cabinet intermingling with each other. After many negotiations Henry offered the queen and the Duke of Burgundy to make peace with them, to espouse the Princess Catherine, and to accept of all the provinces ceded to Edward III. by the treaty of Bretegni, with the addition of Normandy, which he was to receive in full and entire sovereignty. These terms were agreed to, there remained only some other circumstances to adjust, in order to complete the treaty, when, in the interval, the Duke of Burgundy secretly finished his treaty with the dauphin, and these two princes agreed to share the royal authority between them, during King Charles's lifetime, and to unite their forces in order to expel the foreign enemy.

This alliance, which seemed to cut off from Henry all hopes of further success, proved in the end the most favorable circumstance that could have happened.

Whether the dauphin and the Duke of Burgundy were ever sincere in their mutual engagements is uncertain, but very fatal effects resulted from their seeming union. They agreed to an interview, in order to arrange the means of rendering the attack on the English effectual; but how they could safely venture upon

this conference seemed difficult to contrive. The two princes came to Montrean, the duke lodged in the castle, the dauphin in the town, which was divided from the castle by the river Yonne. The bridge between them was chosen for the interview; two high rails were drawn across the bridge; the gates on each side were guarded, one by the officers of the dauphin, the other by those of the duke. The princes were to enter into the intermediate space by opposite gates, accompanied each by ten persons, and there to conciliate their mutual friendship.

But it appeared that no precautions are sufficient where laws have no place, and where principles of honor are utterly abandoned.

De Chatel and the others of the dauphin's retainers had been zealous partisans of the late Duke of Orleans, who had been murdered by the Duke of Burgundy; they determined to seize this opportunity of revenging on the assassin the murder of that prince. On entering within the rails, therefore, they drew their swords and attacked the duke. His friends were astonished, and, not being prepared for defence, either shared his fate or were taken prisoners (1419). The extreme youth of the dauphin made it doubtful whether he had been admitted into the secret of the conspiracy, but as he was present when the deed was committed, the whole blame fell upon him.

The whole state of affairs was everywhere changed by this unexpected incident.

The city of Paris, passionately devoted to the family of Burgundy, broke out in the greatest fury against the dauphin. The court of King Charles entered from interest into the same views. The queen, persevering in her unnatural animosity against her son, increased the general flame and inspired in the king, as far as he was susceptible of any sentiment, the same prejudices by which she herself had long been actuated.

But above all, Philip, now Duke of Burgundy, thought himself bound, by every tie of honor and of duty, to revenge the murder of his father, and to prosecute the assassin to the utmost extremity.

Meanwhile, the King of England, profiting by the distractions of France, was daily making a considerable progress in Nor-

mandy. Ronen had fallen, after an obstinate siege; he had made himself master of Pontoise and Gisors; he even threatened Paris, and, by the terror of his arms, made the court remove to Troyes. In the midst of his successes, he was agreeably surprised to find his enemies, instead of combining against him for their mutual defence, disposed to rush into his arms, and to make him the instrument of their vengeance upon each other.

A league was immediately concluded between him and the Duke of Burgundy. This prince, without stipulating anything for himself, excepting the prosecution of his father's murderer, and the marriage of the Duke of Bedford with his sister, was willing to sacrifice the kingdom to Henry's ambition, and he agreed to every demand made by that monarch.

Henry went to Troyes, accompanied by his brother, and was there met by the Duke of Burgundy.

The imbecility into which Charles had fallen made him incapable of seeing anything except through the eyes of those who attended him, and they on their part saw only through the medium of their passions. The treaty being agreed to was immediately drawn up, signed, and ratified, May 21, 1420. Henry's will seemed to be law throughout the whole negotiation.

The principal articles of the treaty were that Henry should marry the Princess Catherine; that King Charles, during his lifetime, should enjoy the title and dignity of King of France; that Henry should be declared and acknowledged heir of the monarchy, and be intrusted with the present administration of the government; that that kingdom should pass to his heirs general; that France and England should be forever united under one king, but should still retain their several usages, customs, and privileges; and that all the princes, peers, vassals, and communities of France should swear that they would both adhere to the future succession of Henry, and pay him present obedience as regent.

Such was the tenor of this famous treaty, which nothing but the most violent animosity could dictate, and nothing but the power of the sword carry into execution.

Henry was now determined to press his present advantages,

and allow others no leisure for reason or reflection. A few days after he married Princess Catherine he carried his father-in-law to Paris, and put himself in possession of that capital: he obtained from the Parliament and three estates a ratification of the treaty of Troyes.

He then supported the Duke of Burgundy in procuring a sentence against the murderers of his father, and turned his arms with success against the adherents of the dauphin.

The necessity of providing supplies both of men and money obliged Henry, in 1421, to go over to England, and he left his uncle, the Duke of Exeter, Governor of Paris during his absence.

He now levied a new army of thirty thousand men and returned to Paris, where he was received with great expressions of joy, and for the space of twelve months gained several victories over the dauphin, depriving him of all his northern possessions, and to crown all other prosperity, his queen was safely delivered of a son, who was called by his father's name, and whose birth was celebrated by rejoicings no less sincere at Paris than at London. The infant prince seemed to be universally regarded as the future heir of both kingdoms.

But the glory of Henry, when it had nearly reached the summit, was stopped short by the hand of nature, and all his mighty projects vanished.

He was seized with a fistula, a malady which the surgeons of that time had not skill enough to cure, and he knew his end was approaching.

He sent for his brother, the Duke of Bedford, and for the Earl of Warwick and a few other noblemen, and delivered to them his last will with regard to the government of his kingdom and family. He entreated them to continue toward his infant son the same fidelity and attachment which they had always professed to himself. He left the Regency of France to his eldest brother, the Duke of Bedford, that of England to the Duke of Gloucester, and the care of his son's person to the Earl of Warwick. And he conjured them, if the success of their arms should not enable them to place young Henry on the throne of France, never, at least, to make peace with that king-

dom unless the enemy, by the cession of Normandy and its annexation to the crown of England, made compensation for all the hazard and expense of his expedition.

Though boundless ambition was the great feature of Henry's character, and he was gifted with such skill and courage as made his reign one series of triumphs, he was something more than a mere conqueror. His character is stained by the execution of his Scottish prisoners, but at other times he showed both clemency and liberality, and was thus able to conciliate many of his father's opponents.

A proof of his wisdom remains in the instructions that he issued to his army invading France for the prevention of all wanton havoc, and in the directions that he gave for the protection of the unarmed population he showed as much humanity as would be expected in modern times.

He died on the 31st of August, 1422, in the thirty-fourth year of his age and tenth of his reign, and was succeeded by his infant son, Henry.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS. — Scotland: James I.; France: Charles VI.; Emperor of the West: Sigismund.

Henry VI.—A.D. 1422-1461.

Born at Windsor, December 6, 1421.

Crowned, November, 1429.

Married Margaret of Anjou, April, 1445. Issue:

Edward, Prince of Wales, born October 13, 1453; married Lady Ann Neville, who afterward married Richard III.

HENRY, only son of Henry V. and his queen Catherine of France, last monarch of the Lancaster line, was born at Windsor Castle, December 6, 1421.

His reign is reckoned as having commenced August 31, 1422, the day of his father's death, when he was only nine months old.

Parliament declared him King of France and England and Lord of Ireland, and the last will of his father created the Duke of Bedford, his father's elder brother, Regent of France, and the younger brother, the Duke of Gloucester, Protector, Defender, and Chief Councillor of England and the Church.

The care of the young king's person and education was confided to the Earl of Warwick and Bishop Beaufort, his grand-uncle, son of John of Gaunt. Charles VI. of France having died on the 24th of October, 1422, Henry was proclaimed King of France in all those parts of the country which were in possession of the English, while the dauphin, as Charles VII., was crowned by the French the same year at Poitiers.

As Henry was in his infancy, the administration devolved on the Duke of Bedford, the most accomplished prince of his age, whose experience, valor, prudence, and generosity qualified him for his high office. The whole power of England was at his command; he was at the head of armies innured to victory, and seconded by the most renowned generals of the age.

Charles, notwithstanding the present inferiority of his power, possessed some advantages, partly from his situation, partly from his personal character, but principally because he was the true and undoubted heir of the monarchy, and all Frenchmen who desired the independence of their country turned their eyes toward him as their only hope, particularly as most of the princes of the blood were detained prisoners in England since the battle of Agincourt.

As the chief circumstance which had procured to the English all their present advantages was the resentment of Philip, Duke of Burgundy, against Charles, and as that prince seemed determined to gratify his passion rather than consult his interests, the regent used every means to retain him in alliance with England. He offered Philip the regency of France, which he declined, and that he might join national connections by private ties, he concluded his own marriage with the Princess of Burgundy, which had been stipulated for by the treaty of Arras.

He next concluded an alliance with the Duke of Brittany, which was of the greatest importance, as the provinces of France already subdued lay between the dominions of these two princes.

Arthur, Comt of Richemont, brother of the Duke of Brittany, had been taken prisoner by Henry V. at Agincourt, but had been permitted to take a journey into Brittany on his pa-

role ; the death of that monarch happened before Richemont's return, and this prince pretended that, as his word was given personally to Henry, he was not bound to fulfil it toward his son and successor. As the regent could not force him to compliance he deemed it prudent to overlook the dereliction. On the 17th of April, 1423, an interview was arranged between the Dukes of Bedford, Brittany, and Burgundy, at Amiens, at which the Count of Richemont was also present, and an alliance was renewed and made between them.

As the Scotch were rendering valuable assistance to France by supplying large bodies of troops, who were treated by Charles with great honor and distinction, Bedford prevailed on the English council to form an alliance with James, their prisoner, in order to free that prince from his long captivity, and to connect him with England by marrying him to a daughter of the Earl of Somerset, and cousin of the young king, particularly as the Scottish regent was tired of his present dignity, and was anxious for James's liberty. The treaty was soon concluded, a ransom of £40,000 was stipulated, the King of Scots was returned to the throne of his ancestors, and proved, in his short reign, one of the most illustrious princes that had ever governed that kingdom.

The seat of Charles's power lay in the south, beyond the Loire ; his partisans were possessed of some fortresses in the northern provinces, and even in the neighborhood of Paris, and it behoved the Duke of Bedford first to clear these places from the enemy before he could think of more distant conquests. In this he was successful, together with the forces of Burgundy opening an entrance into the southern provinces, which seemed to promise a successful issue of the war.

On the 27th of August, 1424, the battle of Verneuil was fought, Bedford commanding the English, while the Earl of Buchan, Constable of France, commanded the French, the former gaining a complete victory.

The condition of the French king now appeared almost desperate. He had lost the flower of his army, and the bravest of his nobles in this fatal action. He had no recourse either for recruiting his army, or for their subsistence ; he wanted money

even for his personal use, and, though all parade of a court was banished, it was with difficulty he could keep his table supplied with the plainest necessities. Every day brought him intelligence of some loss or disaster; towns which were bravely defended were obliged to surrender, for want of relief or supply. He saw his partisans chased from all the northern provinces, and he expected soon to lose all the territories of which, until then, he was master. At this crisis an incident occurred which saved him from ruin, while the English lost such an opportunity for completing their conquest which they never afterward were able to recover.

Jaqueline, Countess of Hainault, had, for reasons of state, married John, Duke of Brabant, cousin of the Duke of Burgundy, but, from various causes, had reason to repent of the unequal alliance, she being a princess of masculine spirit and full vigor, while he was of a sickly constitution and weak mind, and had only reached his fifteenth year. These causes had inspired her with such contempt for her husband that she was resolved to dissolve a marriage where, it is probable, nothing but the ceremony had as yet been consummated. The princess made her escape to England, and threw herself under the protection of the Duke of Gloucester. That prince had the defect of being governed by an impetuous temper. He was rashly induced, as well by the charms of the countess as by the prospect of possessing her rich inheritance, to offer himself as her husband, without waiting for a papal dispensation, or endeavoring to reconcile the Duke of Burgundy. He entered into a contract of marriage with her, and immediately attempted to take possession of her dominions. The Duke of Burgundy, disgusted with such precipitate conduct, resented the injury done to his cousin. He dreaded to have the English established on all sides of him, and foresaw the consequences. He therefore encouraged the Duke of Brabant to make resistance, marched troops to his support, and as Gloucester still persevered in his purpose, a sharp war was suddenly kindled in the Low Countries.

The Duke of Bedford could easily foresee the effect of so ill-timed and imprudent a quarrel.

All the succors which he expected from England, and which were so necessary at this critical time, were intercepted by his brother, and employed in Holland. The forces of the Duke of Burgundy, which he also depended on, were diverted by the same war, and, besides this double loss, there arose the danger of alienating that brother, whom the late king had, with his dying breath, bade him to gratify by every mark of regard and attachment.

He represented all his fears to Gloucester, he attempted to mitigate the resentment of Burgundy, but was not successful in any of his endeavors.

For this reason, instead of pushing his victory at Verneuil, he found himself obliged to take a journey to England, and try, by his council and authority, to moderate the measures of the Duke of Gloucester.

About this time the Duke of Brabant began to withdraw himself from the English alliance, and as his brother, the Count of Richemont, had been offered the staff of Constable of France by Charles, made vacant by the death of the Earl of Buchan, he not only accepted that office, but brought over his brother to an alliance with the French king.

In this situation the Duke of Bedford, on his return in 1426, found the affairs of France, but soon after his arrival the reputation of the English arms revived. He secretly brought together a considerable army to the frontiers of Brittany, and fell so unexpectedly upon that province, that the duke, unable to make resistance, yielded to all the terms required of him. He renounced the French alliance, engaged to maintain the treaty of Troyes, acknowledged the Duke of Bedford as Regent of France, and promised to do homage for his duchy to King Henry.

The city of Orleans being situated between the provinces commanded by Henry and those possessed by Charles, the Duke of Bedford, intending to make a great effort to penetrate into the south of France, determined to begin with this place. This intention becoming known to Charles, he was determined to frustrate the design, and used every expedient to supply the city with a garrison and provisions, to enable it to maintain a

long and obstinate siege. The Lord of Gaucour, a brave and experienced general, was appointed governor; many officers of distinction threw themselves into the place, commanding troops inured to war, and they were determined to make the most obstinate resistance; the eyes of all Europe were turned toward them.

Salisbury commanded the English forces, consisting of ten thousand men, but was soon killed and his place was supplied by the Earl of Suffolk.

Numberless feats of valor were performed by both sides; bold sallies were made and repulsed with equal boldness; convoys were introduced and intercepted, and the supplies were unequal to the wants of the place; the English were daily, though slowly, advancing toward the completion of their enterprise. The siege had lasted a year, and the city was on the point of surrendering through famine, when a deliverance little expected by either party took place. There was a young peasant girl, aged eighteen, Joan of Arc, a native of Lorraine, who was remarkable for her piety. In her solitary meditations she began to see visions, and to hear voices, and she believed that a spirit had commanded her to go to the succor of the king (Charles VII.), and that she could recover for him his kingdom. From time to time she had told her friends what she had seen and heard: "My voices have instructed me"—"my voices have commanded me," were her expressions. The voices which Joan heard disclosed to her the way to carry out her idea; they told her she must put herself in communication with some great person. She sought the feudal Lord of Baudricourt at Vaucouleurs, who however sent her away as one deranged. She told her story to two gentlemen who dwelt near her. "There is no help for France but in me," she said; "I would rather spin by the side of my poor mother, but I must go; my Lord calls me." Her pretensions were spread abroad. At last the Lord of Baudricourt listened to her when she again came before him, and provided her with the equipment of a horse and a man's dress, and she went forth on her perilous journey, and after travelling eleven days, by the most unfrequented roads, arrived at Chinon, where King Charles kept his little court.

Her fame had gone before her, and after some difficulty she was allowed to approach the king.

From the moment when she publicly announced her mission to the court, many things which she probably did through her own shrewd sense, were accounted miracles. It is said she selected the king out of a crowd of attendants, and to have indicated to him facts only known to himself. Every precaution appears to have been taken to prevent the king's cause being committed to an impostor. Her honest life was fully proved, and in the conviction of her sanctity, learned doctors, prudent counsellors, and bold warriors agreed that the maid should be confided in. A suit of armor was provided for her, and she indicated where a sword could be found behind the altar of a church at Fierbois.

At the head of a large force she set out for Orleans, having authority from the king for its command over the best knights of France.

At Blois she put on her armor. Marching on the right bank of the Loire she desired to enter Orleans through the English lines on that side. She was overruled by Dunois, of which she bitterly complained. It was at length decided that boats, loaded with supplies, should proceed up the river. The day was stormy, and the boats could make no way. "The wind will change," said the confident girl. It did change, and the supplies and troops, in the midst of a thunderstorm, were safely landed a little below the city on April 12, 1429. Meanwhile the garrison of Orleans made a sortie on the north, which diverted the attention of the besiegers. An hour after dark Joan of Arc rode into Orleans by the eastern gate, mounted on a white horse—her standard, on which was the figure of our Saviour, being borne before her. The people, by torch-light, crowded around her, and she exhorted them to honor God, and to trust in her for their deliverance.

This extraordinary aid, which was supposed to be supernatural, was soon whispered in the English camp, where many evinced fears of impending misfortunes.

The following day a herald from Joan presented himself at the English camp. The respect paid to the messenger of princes

was denied to one of a reputed sorceress, and he was threatened to be burnt as a heretic. Another herald came to defy the Earl of Suffolk, and to declare the order of the commander of the French, that if the messenger of the maid received any harm, it should be visited upon the English prisoners.

These proceedings began to spread alarm among the brave yeomen of England, who had fronted so many dangers in the field, but who had a terror of witches and magicians characteristic of that period.

The soldiers of Suffolk and Talbot looked on in terror and amazement, when, on a tower facing the Tournelles, a form appeared in shining armor and bade them depart if they would avoid misery and shame. William Gladsdale, the commander of the Tournelles, reviled the maiden, and told her to go back to her cows. "Your men will be driven to retreat," she exclaimed, "but you will not live to fly with them."

The French waited for reinforcements from other garrisons before they attempted any great operations against the besiegers. Joan was invariably for instant attack, without heeding any disparity of numbers or disadvantages of position. Some of the knights were indignant at her assumed authority, but by her resistless force of will she conquered all opposition. The succors were at length at hand. There was no attempt to bring them into the city under the cover of darkness or while the English were engaged in another quarter. At the head of the French knights and soldiers, followed by the people of the town, Joan rode forth with her banner between the towers of the besiegers. They looked on in wonder; but there was no resistance. When she returned at night she threw herself exhausted on her bed. Awakened by a noise, she cried out "My arms! My horse." She rushed into the street, mounted with her banner, and rode alone to the spot where she heard the clamor.

A rash sortie had been made, and the assailants were driven back. When they saw the white horse and the banner of the maid they shouted for joy, and followed her out of the gate into the besiegers' lines. After an engagement of three hours the English fort was taken and set on fire. It was Joan's first

battle. She had fought with the courage and address of a most accomplished knight.

The terror of the English after the sortie became universal. The following day the maid and the chiefs crossed the Loire in a boat, and led an attack upon a fortification upon the left bank, where she was slightly wounded, and spent the night upon the field.

The great force of the besiegers was on the right bank of the river, and the Governor of Orleans was opposed to this leading forth of the garrison, to leave the city defenceless, while the English were attacked on the left bank. But the daring maid had quite won the real leadership of the soldiers and citizens, and, without any concert with the leaders, she rose early in the morning and went forth with a tumultuous crowd to the Burgundy gate. It was shut against her egress. The governor was compelled to open it, and she rode out, followed by soldiers and a great multitude. Their counsel being thus rejected, the French knights with their men-at-arms reluctantly followed; but their prudence was soon laid aside by the din of battle.

The river was crossed, and Joan commenced an assault on the Tournelles, the great fort held to be impregnable. She was wounded by an arrow, and fell into a ditch, but was carried off by her friends. The attack had lasted four hours, and nothing had been gained. The retreat was sounded. Joan implored Dunois not to move. "Let our people rest and eat and drink," she said. The Lord of Daubon, who was against a retreat, took the standard, and waving the well-known sign of victory, the French rallied round him. Seeing what was taking place, Joan went forward to claim her standard. The English, who had seen her fall and wounded, felt a new alarm when the French advanced again to the attack under their marvellous leader.

From the other bank the people from Orleans were storming the Tournelles, having crossed the broken arches of the bridge by planks. The English were now between two assaults, and the soldiers were filled with superstitious awe. Gladsdale was retreating when he was killed, and the maid's prophetic words were accomplished. The English now threw down their arms, and

were slaughtered, drowned, or taken prisoners to the number of seven thousand men.

No aid came from the panic-stricken camp, and the maid passed over the repaired bridge into the city amidst the shouts of the multitude, while every steeple sent forth its peals of happy bells, and at every church a *Te Deum* was sung on that night of victory.

The following morning, May 8, 1429, the English marched out of the forts and formed in order of battle, but Suffolk, finding his troops so intimidated, deemed it dangerous to remain any longer in the presence of so courageous and victorious an enemy; he raised the siege, and retreated with all precautions possible.

The French were resolved to push their conquest and to allow the English no leisure to recover from their consternation. Charles sent a body of six thousand men to attack Jergen, where the Earl of Suffolk had retired; the siege lasted ten days, but at last the place fell, and Suffolk was taken prisoner. The English army being now defeated, Charles set out for Rheims. Troyes and Chalons opened their gates to him, and on July 17, 1429, he was crowned and anointed in the former city. The town of Compiègne was besieged by the Duke of Burgundy, assisted by the Earls of Arundel and Suffolk. Joan of Arc threw herself into that town to assist the besieged; the next day after her arrival, May 24, 1430, she headed a sally upon the enemy, was deserted by her followers, and taken prisoner. Carried to Rouen, accused of sorcery, impiety, and magic, she was tried before the Bishop of Beauvais, a man wholly devoted to the English, found guilty, and sentenced to be burned. On June 14, 1431, the sentence was carried out.

The affairs of the English, far from being advanced by the execution of Joan, went every day more and more against them. The great abilities of the Duke of Bedford were unable to resist the strong inclination which had seized the French to return to the allegiance of their rightful sovereign who was now successful everywhere.

Place after place held by the English fell: all these misfortunes brought discredit on them.

To try to stem the rising feeling in favor of Charles, Bedford carried his young nephew over to Paris, and had him crowned (1431), but it was soon seen that to hope to really subdue and hold the whole of France was a mere delusion; conferences, therefore, were held, but they did not procure peace, as neither party would make any considerable concession to the other.

In 1435, the Duke of Burgundy became dissatisfied with his English alliance, and appears to have been willing to relent in his animosity against Charles, and to receive apologies from that monarch for the murder of his father. The king pleaded his extreme youth, his incapacity to judge for himself, and the power then held over him by his ministers. The more to flatter the duke, the king banished from his court, de Chatel, and all those who were concerned in the murder. While the duke was in this disposition he was entreated to agree, by the Earl of Richemont and Duke of Bourbon, and he finally determined to unite himself with the royal house of France, from which his own family was descended, and on August 14, 1435, a congress was held at Arras in which a treaty was made between them.

A few days after the Duke of Bedford received intelligence of this treaty, so fatal to the interests of England, he died at Rouen (September 14, 1435); he was succeeded in the office of Regent of France by the Duke of York, son of the Earl of Cambridge, who was executed in the last reign; but it was seven months before the appointment was made, and the English remained in the enemy's country for that length of time without a proper head or governor.

The new governor on his arrival found the capital already lost. The Parisians had always been more attached to the Burgundian than to the English interest, and troops were introduced at night by the assistance of the citizens. Lord Willoughby, who commanded only a small garrison, was expelled, and allowed to retreat with his troops into Normandy.

Negotiations had been carried on for some time between the Earl of Suffolk and the French ministers for a lasting peace, but it was found impossible to agree to terms, and on May 28, 1443, a truce for twenty-two months was concluded between the two kingdoms.

As Henry advanced in years his character became fully known to all parties. He was of the most harmless, inoffensive, and simple manners, but of the most slender capacity, and was liable, both by the mildness of his temper and the weakness of his understanding, to be perpetually governed by those who surrounded him. It was easy to see his reign would prove a perpetual minority.

On the ending of the protectorate there had been great contention between the Cardinal Beaufort and the Duke of Gloucester; the former triumphed, who then gave the government a strong ecclesiastical tendency. As the king had now reached his twenty-third year, the Beaufort party arranged a marriage between him and Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Regnier, King of Sicily. The ceremony was performed on April 22, 1445, and was unpopular in England, both on account of Margaret's relationship to the French king, and because, for her hand, Maine and Anjou were surrendered to her father, who claimed them by right of inheritance.

A conspiracy was formed against the Duke of Gloucester by the Beaufort party; he was accused of treason, and thrown into prison, and on February 28, 1447, was found dead in his bed, no doubt murdered in the same way as Edward II. and Richard II.

In 1449 Charles renewed the war by the invasion of Normandy with four powerful armies, and in the short space of twelve months Cherbourg, the last place in Normandy which remained in the English hands, was delivered up to the conqueror, to the great joy of the inhabitants and the whole French nation. Though no peace or truce was concluded between France and England, the war was considered at an end. Calais was the only possession in France now held by England.

As the incapacity of the king appeared every day in a clearer light, dangerous consequences began to be apprehended, and men of unquiet spirits—no longer employed in foreign wars—began to excite intestine disorders. One Jack Cade, a native of Ireland, raised a rebellion which for a time was successful, but it was soon put down, and Cade was executed.

About this time there occurred a circumstance of a more seri-

ous nature. A pretender to the crown appeared in the person of Richard, Duke of York, descended through the female line from Lionel, third son of Edward III., and popular attention was drawn to him as the rightful heir to the throne. Henry's weakness, and the general unpopularity of his government, encouraged the Duke of York, who was much beloved by the people because of his bravery, mildness of temper, and general good conduct both in public and private life. His immense possessions gave him vast influence, his wife was a Neville, and he had the support of that family, and of the Earls of Salisbury and Warwick, father and son.

So long as no offspring followed from the marriage of Henry and Margaret, it was believed that York would peaceably succeed to the throne on the king's death: but on October 13, 1453, Margaret gave birth to a son, whose legitimacy was doubted, and about the same time the king became imbecile, which rendered him incapable of maintaining even the appearance of royalty.

The queen and the council, destitute of the king's support, found themselves unable to resist the York party, and they were obliged to yield to the torrent. They sent Somerset to the Tower, and appointed the Duke of York lieutenant of the kingdom, 1453, with powers to open and hold a session of Parliament.

Henry, having recovered sufficiently in the year 1455, resumed his government. He immediately restored Somerset to office, and the abuses were renewed, of which York complained, and demanded reformation of the government, which being denied, York levied an army, and the first battle of the Roses was fought at St. Albans, the 22d of May, 1455. The royal army was beaten with great loss. Among the slain was the Duke of Somerset, and the king himself fell into the hands of the Duke of York, who treated him with great respect and tenderness—he was only obliged to commit the whole authority of the crown into the hands of his rival!

On the 9th of July Parliament met. They granted the Yorkists a general indemnity, and restored the protectorship to the duke, but at the same time renewed their oaths of fealty to

Henry, and fixed the continuance of the protectorship to the majority of his son Edward, who was created Prince of Wales, Duke of Cornwall, Earl of Chester.

The following year the queen, availing herself of York's absence, produced the king before the House of Lords, and as his state of health permitted him at that time to act his part with decency, he declared his intentions of resuming the government, and of putting an end to York's authority.

As many of the lords were annoyed at the last resumption, they assented to the king's proposal, and he was consequently declared to be reinstated in sovereign authority: even the Duke of York afterward acquiesced.

The court retired to Coventry, and invited the Duke of York and the Earls of Salisbury and Warwick to attend the king's person; but when on the road they were informed that designs were formed against their lives, and they withdrew to their different castles.

In 1458 it was agreed that all the great leaders on both sides should meet in London and become reconciled. Both parties came thither, attended by numerous retinues, and took up their quarters near each other for mutual security. The mayor, at the head of five thousand men, kept a strict watch, day and night, in keeping peace between them, and an outward reconciliation only was procured.

The following year a partisan quarrel between one of the king's retinue and one of the Earl of Warwick's retainers ended in the companions on both sides taking part. The earl, supposing his life aimed at, fled, and both parties, in every county of England, openly made preparation for deciding the contest by war.

The Earl of Salisbury, marching to join the Duke of York, was overtaken at Blore Heath by Lord Audley. On the 23d of September, 1459, a battle was fought. Salisbury, obtaining a complete victory, reached the general rendezvous of the Yorkists at Ludlow, where they were joined by a choice body of veteran troops under the Earl of Warwick, from Calais.

The royal army approached, and a general action was every hour expected. Sir A. Trollop, who commanded the veterans,

deserted to the king, and the Yorkists were so dismayed at this treachery, that they separated next day without striking a blow.

The duke fled to Ireland; the Earl of Warwick and many of the other leaders escaped to Calais.

After meeting with some successes at sea the following year, Warwick landed in Kent with some retainers, and was met by the primate, Lord Cobham, and other persons of distinction. They marched amidst the acclamations of the people to London; the city opened its gates to him, and his troops increasing on every day's march, he soon found himself in a condition to face the royal army. The battle was fought at Northampton, July 10, 1460, and was soon decided against the royalists by the desertion of Lord Grey, of Ruthin, to the enemy during the heat of action, which spread consternation among the king's troops. The loss was slight; the slaughter fell chiefly on the gentry and nobility, and Henry was again taken prisoner.

The duke returned from Ireland, a parliament was summoned in the king's name, and met at Westminster the 7th of October, 1460. The Duke of York now demanded the throne, and both houses deliberated on the subject, and after several days decided, and declared that the title of the Duke of York was indisputable, but in consideration that Henry had enjoyed the crown for thirty-eight years, that he should continue to possess the title and dignity during the remainder of his life; that the administration of the government should remain with Richard, and that he should be acknowledged the true and lawful heir to the crown. The duke acquiesced; the king, being a prisoner, could not oppose it.

After the defeat at Northampton, the queen had fled to Durham with her infant son, thence to Scotland; but, soon returning, she applied to the northern barons for assistance, and by their aid collected an army of twenty thousand men. The Duke of York, hearing of her appearance in the north, hastened thither with an army of five thousand men to suppress, as he imagined, the beginning of an insurrection, when, on his arrival at Wakefield, he found himself greatly outnumbered by the enemy. But the duke possessed personal bravery, and thought he would be forever disgraced if he were to take shelter be-

hind stone walls, and for a moment resign the victory to a woman.

He descended into the plain and offered battle, which was instantly accepted. The great inequality of numbers was sufficient to decide the victory in favor of the queen; the duke himself was slain, the Earl of Salisbury wounded, taken prisoner, and almost immediately beheaded, and the Yorkists lost over three thousand killed, wounded, and prisoners (December 24, 1460).

After this important victory the queen divided her army. She sent the smaller division, under Jasper Tudor, Earl of Pembroke, half-brother to the king, against Edward, now Duke of York, eldest son of Richard, the late duke.

With the larger division she marched toward London, where the Earl of Warwick had been left in command of the Yorkists. Pembroke was defeated by Edward at Mortimer Cross, in Herefordshire, February 2, 1461, with a loss of four thousand men; his army was dispersed, and he himself escaped by flight, but his father, Sir Owen Tudor, was taken prisoner and beheaded.

Queen Margaret compensated this defeat by a victory she gained over the Earl of Warwick on the 17th February, 1461, at St. Albans, which once more restored Henry to the keeping of his friends. The queen received no great advantage from this victory, as Edward advanced on her from the other side, collected the remains of Warwick's army, and was soon in a condition to give her battle with a superior force. She was sensible of her danger, as she lay between the enemy and London; she therefore found it necessary to retreat with her army to the north, and Edward entered the capital amidst the acclamations of the citizens. Being elated with his reception, he resolved no longer to confine himself within those narrow limits which his father had prescribed for himself, and determined to assume the title and dignity of king, and to insist openly on his claim, and thenceforth to treat the rival party as traitors and rebels against his lawful authority. As the national consent, or the appearance of it, seemed necessary, and the assembling of Parliament might occasion too many delays, he ventured to proceed in a less regular manner. He ordered his army to as-

semble in St. John's Fields, and great numbers of the people surrounded it.

An harangue was pronounced in favor of Edward and against the rival family, and the people were then asked whether they would have Henry of Lancaster for king. They unanimously exclaimed against that proposition. It was then demanded whether they would accept Edward, eldest son of Richard, the late Duke of York, and they all expressed their assent by loud and joyful acclamations.

A large number of bishops, noblemen, magistrates, and other people of distinction, were next summoned to Baynard Castle, who ratified the popular election, and, on the 5th of March, 1461, the new king was proclaimed in London, by the title of Edward IV.

In this way ended the reign of Henry VI., a monarch who, while in his cradle, had been proclaimed King of France and England, and who began his life with more splendid prospects than any prince in Europe ever enjoyed.

Henry married Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Regnier, titular king of Sicily, 1445; was deposed March 3, 1461; restored October 9, 1470; again deposed April, 1471. Issue: one son, Edward, murdered by the Duke of Gloucester, May 21, 1471. A few days afterward Henry died in the Tower, supposed to have been murdered by Gloucester also, in the fiftieth year of his age and thirty-ninth of his reign. He was succeeded by Edward of York.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: James I., James II., James III.; France: Charles VI., Charles VII.; Emperors of the West: Sigismund, Albert II., Frederick III.



THE HOUSE OF YORK.

A.D. 1461-1485.

THE House of York, or the White Rose, was also descended from the Plantagenets. It originated with Lionel, third son of Edward III., who married Elizabeth de Burg. By her he had one daughter, Philippa, who married Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March. All the males of that house being extinct, the title and estate fell to the female line, in the person of Anne, sister of the last Earl of March. She married the Earl of Cambridge, who was beheaded in Henry V.'s reign, for treason, in conspiring and attempting to place the Earl of March upon the throne. Anne transmitted her claim to her eldest son, Richard, created Duke of York, who fell at the battle of Wakefield, December 24, 1460, and was succeeded in his dukedom by his eldest son, Edward, afterward Edward IV., first king of the House of York.

Edward IV.—A.D. 1461–1483.

Born at Rouen, April 29, 1441.

Proclaimed king, March 4, 1461.

Crowned June 28, 1461.

Married, first, Elizabeth Woodville, widow of Sir John Gray. Issue:

Edward, Prince of Wales.

Richard, Duke of York.

Elizabeth, married King Henry VII.

Cicely, married Viscount Welles.

Anne, married Duke of Norfolk.

Bridget, a nun.

Katharine, married Sir William Courtney.

Died at Westminster, April 9, 1483.

EDWARD IV. was born at Rouen, the 29th of April, 1441, was proclaimed king in London, March 4, 1461, and thus there were two kings and two royal armies in the land. Both parties made formidable preparations for battle. The queen's army in the north had been joined by great numbers, and she now commanded sixty thousand men in Yorkshire.

The king and the Earl of Warwick hastened with an army of forty thousand men, to check her progress; a body of Yorkist troops, under Lord Fitzwalter, sent forward to secure the passage over the river Ayre, had been defeated with great slaughter, but the post was afterward recovered.

The hostile armies met at Towton, on the 29th of March, 1461, and a fierce and bloody battle ensued. One hundred thousand Englishmen were drawn up in hostile array. Proclamation had been made that no quarter would be given. The battle lasted more than a day, was probably the bloodiest ever fought in England, and ended after the slaughter of thirty thousand men, and the total rout of the Lancastrians, and thus the crown was firmly placed on the brow of Edward, who, returning to London, was crowned the 28th of June, 1461.

Henry and Margaret had remained in York during the action, but learning of the defeat of their army, and being sensible that no place in England could now afford them shelter, they fled with great haste into Scotland, accompanied by the Dukes of Exeter and Somerset. Edward did not pursue the fugitives, but returned to London, where he summoned a parliament to

settle the government. On the meeting of that assembly on November 4, 1461, it immediately recognized his right to the throne, by hereditary descent through the family of Mortimer, and declared he was king by right from the death of his father, who had also the same lawful title, and that he was in possession of the crown from the day that he assumed the government by the acclamations of the people. They expressed their abhorrence of the usurpation of the house of Lancaster, annulled every grant which had passed in those reigns, reinstated the king in all the possessions that had belonged to the crown at the pretended deposition of Richard II., and reversed all attainders passed in those reigns, particularly the attainder of the Earl of Cambridge, the king's grandfather, as well as the Earls of Salisbury and Gloucester.

In the year 1462 Margaret sailed for France, and sought an alliance with Louis, promising to deliver Calais to him if her family should, by his means, be restored to the throne of England. He was induced to send with her a body of two thousand men-at-arms, with whom she appeared in Scotland, and was there joined by a numerous band of adventurers and many partisans of the family of Lancaster. She then entered England, and, on the 15th of May, 1464, was met at Hexham by an army under Lord Montague, where the Lancastrians were completely routed, the queen, with her young son Edward, fleeing into a forest, whence, after a time, she escaped to Flanders. The Duke of Somerset, Lords Roos and Hungerford, were taken prisoners and immediately beheaded, and the king was carried by some of his friends into Lancashire, where he remained concealed during twelve months, but was at last detected, delivered up to Edward, and thrown into the Tower, 1466.

The imprisonment of Henry, the expulsion of Margaret, the execution of all the most prominent Lancastrians and the confiscation of their estates, seemed to give full security to Edward's government, whose title by blood being now recognized by Parliament, and universally submitted to by the people, was no longer in danger of being impeached by any antagonist. In this prosperous situation the young king seemed to abandon

himself to a voluptuous indolence, to revels with the city-wives of London, and to the caresses of his mistress, Jane Shore. Tall in stature, and of singular beauty, his winning manners and gay carelessness of bearing secured him a popularity which had been denied to nobler kings. But his indolence and gayety were mere veils, beneath which Edward shrouded a profound political ability.

While jesting with aldermen, or dallying with his mistresses, or idling over the new pages from the printing-press at Westminster, Edward was silently laying the foundations of an absolute rule, which Henry VII. did little more than develop and consolidate. The almost total discontinuance of parliamentary life was, in itself, a revolution. Up to this moment the two houses had played a part which became more and more prominent in the government of the realm.

Under the two first kings of the House of Lancaster they had been summoned almost every year. Not only had the right of self-taxation and initiation of laws been yielded explicitly to the Commons, but they had taken part in the work of government itself, had directed the application of subsidies, and called the royal ministers to account by parliamentary impeachments. Under Henry VI. an important step in constitutional progress had been made, by abandoning the old form of presenting the requests of the Parliament in the form of petitions, which were subsequently moulded into statutes by the royal council; the statute itself, in its final form, was now presented for the royal assent, and the crown was deprived of its former privilege of modifying it. Not only does this progress cease, but the legislative activity of Parliament itself comes abruptly to an end. The reign of Edward IV. is the first since that of John in which not a single law which promoted freedom, or remedied the abuses of power, was even proposed to Parliament.

The necessity of summoning the two houses had, in fact, been removed by the enormous tide of wealth which the confiscation poured into the royal treasury.

In the single bill of attainder which followed the victory of Towton, twelve great nobles and more than one hundred

knights and squires were stripped of their estates to the king's profit. It was said that nearly a fifth of the land had passed into the royal possession at one period or another of the civil war.

Jaqueline of Burgundy, duchess-dowager of Bedford, had so far sacrificed her ambition to love, that she espoused, in second marriage, Sir Richard Woodville, a private gentleman, to whom she bore several children, and among the rest Elizabeth, who was remarkable for the grace and beauty of her person, as well as many accomplishments; she had married Sir John Gray of Groby, by whom she had children; her husband had been slain in the second battle of St. Albans, fighting on the side of Lancaster, and his estate being confiscated his widow was now living retired with her father. The king, by accident, visited the house after a hunting party, and as the occasion appeared a favorable one, the young widow threw herself at the king's feet, and with many tears entreated him to have pity on her impoverished and distressed children. The sight of so much beauty in affliction, strongly affected the amorous Edward; love stole insensibly into his heart, he raised her from the ground, he found his passion increase, and he was soon reduced, in his turn, to the posture of a suppliant at her feet. But the lady, either averse to dishonorable love or perceiving she had hopes of obtaining the highest elevation, obstinately refused to gratify his passion. Irritated by opposition, his passion increased by his veneration for such honorable sentiments, when at last, beyond all bounds of reason, he offered to share with her his throne as well as his heart, and they were privately married at Grafton, 1464, and the secret was carefully kept for some time. In 1465 the marriage was publicly acknowledged, and her father was created Earl of Rivers, and invested with the office of constable for life. Her sisters were married to the highest nobility, and her family made other alliances, and received appointments which gave a general alarm to the nobility, and disgusted many even zealous partisans of the House of York.

Philip, Duke of Burgundy, was now dead; his rich and extensive domains were held by Charles, his only son, whose martial disposition acquired for him the surname of Bold. His op-

position to France still continued, and Edward was sure of the friendship of either of them for whom he should choose to declare himself. An alliance was made with Duke Charles, and Edward bestowed his sister Margaret in marriage on him in 1468. At the same time he concluded a league with the Duke of Brittany, which seemed both to increase his security, and to open to him the prospect of rivalling his predecessors in those foreign conquests, which, however short-lived and unprofitable, had rendered their reigns popular and illustrious.

But whatever ambitious schemes the king might have built on these alliances, they were soon frustrated by intestine commotions, which engrossed all his attention.

The union of the king and Elizabeth had displeased the powerful and haughty Earl of Warwick, who had been authorized to negotiate a marriage between Edward and the Princess Bona of Savoy, sister of the Queen of France. He had succeeded in doing so, and it only required to be ratified by the king; but on his hearing of the secret marriage he returned to England, inflamed with rage and indignation, and that nobleman was allowed to depart from court full of the same ill-humor which he brought to it.

Every incident now tended to widen the breach between the king and this powerful subject, and the queen was anxious to draw every favor to her own friends, and to exclude those of the earl, whom she considered her mortal enemy.

An insurrection broke out in Yorkshire about the right of levying a thrave of corn for the support of an hospital, and fifteen thousand men marched to the gates of York, and on July 26, 1469, a battle was fought at Banbury and the insurgents were beaten.

Another rebellion broke out in 1470 in Lincolnshire and was headed by Sir Robert Welles. The king met them on the 13th of March, and defeated them, taking the leaders prisoners, and ordered their immediate execution.

Edward, during these troubles, had entertained so little jealousy of the Earl of Warwick or the Duke of Clarence, that he sent them with commissions to levy forces against the rebels, but these malcontents, as soon as they left the court, raised troops in

their own name, issued declarations against the government, and complained of grievances, oppressions, and bad ministers. The unexpected defeat of Welles disconcerted all their measures, and they retired into Lancashire, where they expected to be joined by Lord Stanley. But as that nobleman refused to unite with them, and Lord Montague remained quiet in Yorkshire, they were obliged to disband their army, and to fly into Devonshire, where they embarked for Calais.

Warwick having been denied admittance within that fortified town by the lieutenant-governor, one Vauder, sailed for France, where he was received by Louis with the greatest demonstrations of regard. His present distress and the entreaties of the king, made him hearken to terms of accommodation, and Margaret being sent for from Anjou, where she resided, an agreement was, from common interest, soon concluded between them. It was stipulated that Warwick should espouse the cause of Henry, and endeavor to restore him to liberty, and re-establish him on the throne; that the administration of the government, during the minority of young Edward, Henry's son, should be intrusted conjointly to the Earl of Warwick and Duke of Clarence; that Prince Edward should marry the Lady Anne, second daughter of Warwick, and that the crown, in case of the failure of male issue, in that prince, should descend to the Duke of Clarence, to the entire exclusion of Edward and his posterity. The marriage of Prince Edward and Anne was immediately celebrated in France. After this mutual understanding Louis prepared a fleet to escort the Earl of Warwick to England, and granted him a supply of men and money.

The Duke of Burgundy, on the other hand, enraged at Warwick, and anxious to support Edward, fitted out a large fleet, with which he guarded the channel, and he immediately warned his brother-in-law of the imminent perils to which he was exposed. But Edward, though always brave and often active, had little foresight or penetration, and made no suitable preparations against Warwick. A storm dispersed the Flemish fleet, and left the channel open to the earl, who seized the opportunity, and setting sail quickly landed at Dartmouth, with the Duke of Clarence, the Earls of Oxford and Pembroke, and a small body

of troops, while the king was in the north suppressing an insurrection which had been raised by Lord Fitz-Hugh, brother-in-law to Warwick.

The spirit of discontent, the great popularity of Warwick, the zeal of the Lancastrian party, and the general instability of the nation, owing to the late frequent revolutions, drew such multitudes to his standard that in a few days his army numbered sixty thousand men, and was continually increasing.

Edward hastened southward to meet him. The two armies approached each other near Nottingham, where a decisive action was hourly expected. The rapidity of Warwick's progress had prevented the Duke of Clarence from executing his plan of treachery, and the Marquis of Montague had here the opportunity of striking the first blow. Edward was surrounded by enemies in his own camp, and being advised of his danger by his chamberlain, Lord Hastings, who urged him to escape from an army where he had so many concealed enemies, had just time to get on horseback and hurry with a small retinue to Lynn, in Norfolk, where he luckily found a ship ready, on board of which he instantly embarked, and sailed for Holland. Thus, in no longer space than eleven days after his landing, the Earl of Warwick found himself master of the kingdom.

Immediately after Edward's flight had left the kingdom at Warwick's disposal, that nobleman hastened to London, and, taking Henry from his confinement in the Tower, into which he had been the chief cause of throwing him, he proclaimed him king with great solemnity, October 9, 1470. A parliament was immediately called, in the name of the king, to meet at Westminster; the treaty with Margaret was here fully executed; Henry was recognized as the lawful king, but his incapacity for government being acknowledged, the regency was entrusted to Warwick and Clarence until the majority of Prince Edward, and in default of that prince's issue, Clarence was declared heir to the crown.

The usual business of reversals went on without opposition. Every statute made during the reign of Edward was repealed, that prince was declared to be an usurper, he and his adherents

were attainted, and in particular Richard, Duke of Gloucester, his younger brother.

All the attainders of the former reign were reversed, and every one was restored who had lost either honors or fortunes by his former adherence to the cause of Henry.

The only victim of distinction who suffered was the Earl of Worcester, who was tried, found guilty of treason, and executed. All the other principal Yorkists either fled beyond the sea or betook themselves to sanctuaries. In London alone over two thousand persons saved themselves in this manner, among the rest Edward's queen, who was there delivered of a son named after his father.

Queen Margaret, the other rival queen, had not yet arrived in England, but on learning of Warwick's success, was preparing, with Prince Edward, for her journey, but being detained by contrary winds, did not reach their destination until a new revolution had broken out, no less sudden and surprising than the former, throwing them into great misery.

Edward, secretly assisted by the Duke of Burgundy, equipped fourteen vessels, manned by Flemings and Dutchmen, and with a sum of money sailed for England. He attempted to land on the coast of Norfolk, but was repulsed; he then sailed northward and landed on March 25, 1471, at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire.

Finding that the new magistrates, who had been appointed by the Earl of Warwick, kept the people everywhere from joining him, he stated, and even made oath, that he came not to challenge the crown, but only the inheritance of the house of York, which of right belonged to him, and that he did not intend to disturb the peace of the kingdom.

His partisans every moment flocked to his standard, he was admitted into the city of York, and was soon in such a situation as gave him hopes of succeeding in all his claims and pretensions.

Warwick assembled an army at Leicester with the intention of meeting and of giving battle to the enemy, but Edward, by taking another road, passed him unmolested, and presented himself before the gates of London. Had he been refused ad-

mittance he would have been totally undone; but there were many reasons which inclined the citizens to favor him, and on April 11, 1471, he was admitted, and not only made himself master of that powerful city, but also of the person of Henry, who, destined to be the perpetual sport of fortune, thus fell again into the hands of his enemies.

Edward now found himself in a condition to meet the Earl of Warwick, who had gathered his forces at Barnet, in the neighborhood of London, and here he was deserted by his son-in-law, the Duke of Clarence, who left his camp with twelve thousand men, and during the night joined Edward.

The following day the battle of Barnet was fought with obstinacy on both sides; the victory remained long undecided, until Warwick, his brother, and several of the leaders were slain, and the victory was secured by Edward, April 14, 1471.

The same day on which this battle was fought, Queen Margaret and her son Edward, now about eighteen years of age, landed at Weymouth, supported by a small body of French troops. When the queen received intelligence of her husband's captivity, and of the defeat and death of the Earl of Warwick, her courage quite deserted her, but being encouraged by the Earls of Pembroke, Devonshire, and others, she resumed her former spirit, and determined to defend to the utmost the ruins of her fallen fortunes.

She advanced through Devon, Somerset, and Gloucester, increasing her army as she went, but was at last overtaken by the rapid and expeditious Edward at Tewkesbury, on the banks of the Severn, May 4, 1471. A battle was fought, and the Lancastrians totally defeated; the Earl of Devonshire and Lord Wenloc were killed, and the Duke of Somerset and about twenty other persons of distinction, having taken shelter in a church, were dragged out and immediately beheaded. Queen Margaret and her son were taken prisoners, and the prince was shortly afterward murdered. Margaret was imprisoned in the Tower, and a few days afterward King Henry expired. It was generally believed that he died by the hand of the Duke of Gloucester, May, 1471.

All hopes of the house of Lancaster seemed now to be ut-

terly extinguished; every legitimate prince of that family was dead; almost every great leader of the party had perished, either in battle or on the scaffold.

On the 6th of October, 1471, a parliament was summoned, which ratified, as usual, all the acts of the victor, and recognized his legal authority.

The king, now freed from his enemies, gave himself up to pleasure and amusement, and recovered, by his gay and inoffensive course of life, that popularity which he had lost by the repeated cruelties on his enemies.

In 1474 an alliance was formed by Edward with the Duke of Burgundy, by which France was to be divided between them, and in 1475 he passed over to Calais with an army of twenty thousand men, only to be disappointed by the duke, receiving as his apology that he had carried his armies to the frontiers of Germany. This circumstance gave great disgust to Edward, making him inclined to receive those advances which Louis continually made him for an accommodation, and on the 29th of August, 1475, a truce was concluded between France and England, greatly to the advantage of the latter. The most honorable part of the treaty was the stipulation for the liberty of Queen Margaret. Louis paid a ransom of fifty thousand crowns, and that princess passed the remainder of her days in tranquillity until her death, in 1482.

The Duke of Clarence, since his connection with Warwick, had never been able to regain the king's friendship; he was still regarded as dangerous, and had the misfortune to give displeasure to the queen and his brother, the Duke of Gloucester, a prince unrelenting and unscrupulous in the attainment of his ends. A combination of these powerful adversaries was formed against him, and it was determined to commence by attacking his friends. The plot succeeded; two of his friends were tried on frivolous charges joined with an accusation of sorcery, were found guilty and put to death. When he maintained their innocence, he, by the king's order, was committed to the Tower, tried before the House of Peers for the crime of maintaining the innocence of men who had been condemned in courts of justice, and of declaring against the iniquity of the king who had given orders

for their prosecution. The Duke of Clarence was found guilty by the peers and ordered to be executed. The only favor granted him after his sentence was, to leave him the choice of his death, and he asked to be drowned in a butt of malmsey, a wine he was particularly fond of, and on February 18, 1478, he was drowned in the Tower.

Edward was remarkable alike for his military skill and courage, and his corrupt, luxurious life. He was rapacious, extravagant, licentious, and unscrupulous, but when he had a purpose to gain, could be fascinating in manner. He was innately cruel, and seemed to enjoy personally witnessing the execution of his prisoners; whilst in battle his cry was, "Kill the nobles, and spare the commons." So thoroughly was this acted upon, that the ancient English nobility were almost annihilated in his reign, and the few new peers that he made did not long survive him.

During the remainder of Edward's life he was sunken in indolence and pleasure. He left five daughters, one of whom, Elizabeth, was afterward married to Henry VII., and two sons—the ill-fated Edward and Richard. He died in the forty-second year of his age, and the twenty-second of his reign, on April 9, 1483, and was succeeded by his son Edward, the Prince of Wales.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: James III.; France: Charles VII., Louis XI.; Emperor of the West: Frederick III.

Edward V.—A.D. 1483.

Born in the Sanctuary at Westminster, November 4, 1470.

Murdered, with his brother, the Duke of York, in the Tower, June 22, 1483.

EDWARD, the second king of the York branch of the house of Plantagenet, son of Edward IV. and his wife Elizabeth Woodville, was born in the Sanctuary of Westminster Abbey, November 4, 1470, whither his mother had fled from the Lancastrian army of Queen Margaret and the Earl of Warwick.

Young Edward, at the time of his father's death, was residing in the castle of Ludlow, in Wales, with a mimic court, whither he had been sent, that the influence of his presence might overawe the Welsh, and tend to restore the tranquillity of the

country. His person was committed to the care of the Earl of Rivers, brother of the queen, one of the most accomplished noblemen in England. The queen, anxious to preserve that ascendancy over her son which she had long maintained over her husband, wrote to the Earl of Rivers, that he should raise a body of troops in order to escort the king to London, to protect him during his coronation, and to preserve him from falling into the hands of their enemies.

The opposite faction, sensible that Edward was now of an age when great advantage could be made of his name and countenance, and was approaching that period of life when he would be legally entitled to exert in person his authority, foresaw that the tendency of this measure was to perpetuate their subjection under their rivals, and they strongly opposed a resolution which they represented as the signal for renewing a civil war in the kingdom. Lord Hastings threatened to depart instantly to his government of Calais; the other noblemen seemed resolute to oppose force by force, and as the Duke of Gloucester, on pretence of pacifying the quarrel, had declared against all appearance of an armed power, which might be dangerous, and was unnecessary, the queen, trusting to his friendship and sincerity, and overawed by so violent an opposition, recalled her orders to her brother, and desired him to bring up no greater retinue than should be necessary to support the state and dignity of the young king.

The Duke of Gloucester, meanwhile, set out from York, attended by a numerous train of the northern gentry. When he reached Northampton, he was joined by the Duke of Buckingham, splendidly attended, and as he heard the king was hourly expected, he resolved to await his arrival, under pretence of conducting him from thence to London.

Earl Rivers, fearing the place would be too small to contain so many attendants, sent his pupil by another road to Stony Stratford, and came himself to Northampton to explain, and pay his respects to the Duke of Gloucester.

He was received with the greatest appearance of cordiality, passed the evening pleasantly with the duke, and proceeded on the road with him next day to join the king. But as they were

entering Stony Stratford he was arrested, by order of Gloucester; Sir Richard Gray, one of the queen's sons, and Sir Thomas Vaughan, were also put under guard, and all the prisoners were immediately conducted to Pomfret Castle.

Gloucester endeavored unsuccessfully to satisfy young Edward concerning the violence thus exercised upon his kindred and friends.

The people, however, were extremely rejoiced at this revolution, and the duke was received in London on May 4, 1483, with the loudest acclamations; but the queen no sooner received intelligence of her brother's imprisonment, than she foresaw that Gloucester's violence would not stop there, and that her own ruin, if not that of all her family, was finally determined on. She therefore fled into the Sanctuary of Westminster, with the Duke of York and her five daughters, attended by the Marquis of Dorset, where she trusted the ecclesiastical privileges would not be violated. But Gloucester, anxious to have the young duke in his power, applied to the privy council for authority to take him from the Sanctuary, and through the influence of the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, he at last succeeded, and the mother delivered him up into their charge.

The Duke of Gloucester, being the nearest male of the royal family capable of exercising the government, seemed entitled by the customs of the realm to the office of Protector, and the council, not waiting for the assembling of Parliament, made no scruple of investing him with that dignity, and the coronation was postponed until the 22d of June.

The general prejudice entertained by the nobility against the queen and her kindred occasioned this precipitation and irregularity, and no one foresaw any danger to the succession, much less to the lives of the young princes.

Gloucester, having so far succeeded in his plans, no longer hesitated in removing all obstacles that lay between him and the throne. The death of the Earl of Rivers, and the others detained at Pomfret, was first determined, and he easily obtained the consent of Buckingham and Hastings to this sanguinary measure. He accordingly issued orders to Sir Richard Ratcliff to behead the prisoners.

The Protector next assailed the fidelity of Buckingham. He represented that the execution of persons so nearly related to the king, whom he so openly professed to love, and whose fate he so much resented, would never pass unpunished; that all the actors in that scene were bound, for their own safety, to prevent his future vengeance, and the only means was that he should be put out of the way, and the sceptre placed in the hands of a man of whose friendship the duke might be assured, and whose years and experience taught him to pay respect to merit, and to the rights of the ancient nobility; and that the same necessity which had carried them so far must justify them in attempting further innovations, and making a new settlement of the succession. For these reasons he offered Buckingham great private advantages, and he easily obtained his consent to support him in all his undertakings.

Knowing the importance of gaining Lord Hastings to their side, Gloucester, by means of one Catesby, a lawyer, sounded his sentiments, but found him impregnable in his allegiance and fidelity to the children of his late king, who had ever honored him with his friendship. He therefore determined to ruin utterly the man whom he could not engage in his usurpation.

The young king and his brother, the Duke of York, were now captives in the Tower.

On the 13th of June, the day when Rivers, Gray, and Vaughan were executed at Pomfret by the advice of Hastings, the Protector summoned a council in the Tower, whither that nobleman, suspecting no design against himself, repaired without hesitation.

After indulging in familiar conversation with his councillors, the Protector asked them what punishment those deserved who had plotted against his life, who was so nearly related to the king, and intrusted with the administration of the government. Hastings replied that they merited the punishment of traitors. Gloucester then accused the queen and others of sorceries toward him, by which they had acted on his body, showing his arm all shrivelled, and said it was reduced by their incantations, but the councillors knew that this deformity had been with him from birth. He then accused Hastings as act-

ing with his enemies to destroy him, and on a signal from him armed men rushed in, Hastings was seized, was hurried away, and instantly beheaded, and Lord Stanley, the Archbishop of York, the Bishop of Ely, and other councillors were committed to the Tower.

These acts of violence, exercised against all the nearest connections of the late king, prognosticated the severest fate to his defenceless children.

After the murder of Hastings the Protector no longer made a secret of his intentions to usurp the crown.

The licentious life of Edward, who was not restrained in his pleasures either by honor or prudence, afforded the duke a pretence for declaring his marriage with the queen invalid. He asserted that, before espousing the Lady Elizabeth Grey he had privately married Lady Eleanor Talbot, daughter of the Earl of Shrewsbury. He also maintained that the act of attainder passed against the Duke of Clarence had virtually incapacitated his children from succeeding, and these two families being set aside, the Protector remained the only true and legitimate heir of the House of York. As it would be difficult to prove the former marriage, and as the rule which excludes the heirs of an attainted blood from private successions was never extended to the crown, the Protector resolved to make use of another plea still more shameful and scandalous. He did not hesitate to malign his own mother, then alive, a princess of irreproachable virtue, affirming that Edward IV. and his brother, the Duke of Clarence, were both illegitimate; that the duchess, his mother, had received different lovers into her bed, who were the fathers of those children; that their resemblance to those gallants was a sufficient evidence of their spurious birth; and that he, the Duke of Gloucester, alone, of all her sons, appeared by his features to be the true offspring of Richard, Duke of York. He openly denied the title of Edward V., who then languished in prison. The Duke of Buckingham and his agents, together with the Lord Mayor, called an assembly of the people, and the duke addressed them on the Protector's title to the crown, his numerous virtues and good qualities, and, after much trouble, raised a body of them to accompany the duke to Bayard Cas-

tle, where Gloucester then resided. After the Pretender appeared before the mob, Buckingham told him the nation was resolved to have him for king. The Protector declared his purpose of maintaining his loyalty to his sovereign, and exhorted them to adhere to the same resolution. He was told by Buckingham the people had determined to have another king, and if he rejected their unanimous voice they must look for one who would be more compliant. This argument being too powerful to be resisted he was prevailed upon to accept the crown, and the following day, the 25th of June, 1483, he ascended the throne.

This ridiculous farce was soon after followed by the murder of Edward and his brother, the Duke of York, in the Tower.

Richard gave orders to Sir Robert Brakenbury, constable of the Tower, to put his nephews to death, but he refused to have any hand in this infamous deed.

He soon found a ready instrument for the execution of his purpose in Tyrrel, his master of horse, who was sent with a commission to receive the keys of the Tower for one night, and during that time watched without the chamber while one of his grooms, accompanied by a notorious assassin, entered the sleeping apartments of the young princes, stifled them with feather beds and pillows, and buried their bodies at the foot of the staircase.

Edward was in his fourteenth year at the time of his supposed death, and in about the sixth month of his nominal reign.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: James III.; France: Louis XI.; Emperor of the West, Frederick III.

Richard III.—A.D. 1483-1485.

Born at Fotheringay Castle, 1450.

Crowned July 6, 1483.

Married Lady Neville, widow of the Prince of Wales. Issue :

Edward, Prince of Wales; died young.

Fell on Bosworth field, August 22, 1485.

RICHARD, the last king of England of the Plantagenet line, was born at Fotheringay Castle, October 2, 1450. He was the

youngest son of Richard, Duke of York, and Cicely Neville, daughter of the Earl of Westmoreland, his father being the legitimate heir to the throne.

After the death of his father, at the battle of Wakefield, Richard and his brother George were sent by their mother to Utrecht, where they were under the protection of the Duke of Burgundy. When his elder brother became King of England, as Edward IV., 1461, Richard was brought home and created Duke of Gloucester, afterward Lord High Admiral and Chief Constable of England for life, was endowed with large estates from the spoils of war, and resided for a number of years at Middleham Castle, under the tutelage of his relative, the Earl of Warwick, against whom he fought in 1470. During the rebellion, which for a time restored Henry VI. to the throne, he fled with King Edward to Flanders, September, 1470, and was then attainted and outlawed by Parliament.

When Edward returned to England, Gloucester was in his train, and was influential in effecting the reconciliation between the king and his brother, George, Duke of Clarence. He commanded the vanguard of the Yorkist army at the battle of Barnet, April 14, 1471, being in immediate opposition to Warwick, and by his conduct he proved himself to be a skilful general and brave soldier, and greatly contributed to the victory. The same post was assigned him at the battle of Tewkesbury, twenty days later. In reward for his services, the king created him Lord High Chamberlain of England and Knight of the Garter, and endowed him with large estates, the property of the Nevilles.

He sought and found the Lady Anne Neville, Warwick's youngest daughter, betrothed to Prince Edward of Lancaster, who had been concealed by her relatives, and married her March, 1472.

He exerted his influence with the king to mitigate the horrors of those times, and especially on behalf of the Nevilles.

In 1475 Gloucester accompanied Edward IV. in his invasion of France, and was the only Englishman of note in the army who was neither corrupted nor cajoled by Louis XI. He inherited the estates of his brother, George, Duke of Clarence,

executed for treason, February, 1478. Upon the war breaking out against Scotland, he was made lieutenant-general of the kingdom, 1480; he took possession of Berwick, marched to Edinburgh, and compelled the Scotch to accede to his demands. In 1482 he was made Warden of the Welsh Marshes, and Lord of Carlisle in 1483, receiving a gift of a large sum of money. While in the north he heard of the death of his brother, Edward IV., when he took and imposed on his generals an oath of allegiance to his nephew, Edward V. He met the Duke of Buckingham at Northampton, April 29, 1483, as described in the previous reign, and forcibly assumed the guardianship of the young king the following day.

Richard ascended the throne on the 26th of June, 1483; he was crowned, with his queen, at Westminster on the 6th of July following, and again at York on the 8th of September, and was soon suspected of having caused the murder of his nephews, the king and the Duke of York.

The first acts of Richard's administration were to bestow rewards on those who assisted him in usurping the crown, and to gain by favors those whom he thought were best able to support his future government. Thomas, Lord Howard, was made Duke of Norfolk; Sir Thomas Howard, his son, Earl of Surrey; Lord Lovel, a viscount; even Lord Stanley was set at liberty and made Steward of the Household. But the person who, both from the greatness of his services and the power and splendor of his family, was best entitled to favors under the new government was the Duke of Buckingham, and Richard seemed determined to spare no pains or bounty in securing him to his interests. Buckingham embraced the present opportunity, and claimed the restitution of that part of the Hereford estate that had been escheated to the crown from the Duke of Lancaster, as well as the office of Lord High Constable of England, which had long continued in that family by inheritance, which were readily granted by the king, and was probably the price stipulated for his assistance in promoting the usurpation. Many other dignities and honors were conferred upon him, and the king thought himself sure of preserving the fidelity of the man whose interests seemed so closely connected with those of

the present government. But it was impossible that friendship could long remain inviolate between two men of such corrupt minds as Richard and the Duke of Buckingham. It was not generally known what was the first cause of discontent between them. Richard was sensible of the danger which might ensue from conferring such immense estates and great power on a man of such turbulent disposition, or perhaps he refused some other demands made by Buckingham. However this may be, it is certain that soon after Richard's accession the duke began to form a conspiracy against the king, and attempted to overthrow him whom he had so zealously assisted to seize the throne. Never was there in any country an usurpation more flagrant than that of Richard's, or more repugnant to every principle of justice and public interest. His claim was altogether founded on impudent allegations, never attempted to be proved, some of them incapable of proof, and all of them implying scandalous reflections on his own family and those with whom he was the most nearly connected.

His title was never acknowledged by any national assembly, scarcely even by the people to whom he appealed. To endure such a bloody usurper seemed to draw disgrace upon the nation and to be attended with danger to every individual who was distinguished by birth, merit, or services. Such became the general voice of the people, and all parties were united in the same sentiments. The Lancastrians, so long oppressed, and of late so much discredited, felt their blasted hopes again revive, and waited the consequences of those extraordinary events.

The Duke of Buckingham, whose family had been devoted to that interest, and who by his mother was allied to the house of Lancaster, was easily induced to espouse the cause of that party, and to endeavor to restore it to its ancient superiority.

The Bishop of Ely, a zealous Lancastrian, whom Richard had imprisoned, encouraged these sentiments, and by his advice the duke cast his eyes toward the young Earl of Richmond as the only person who could free the nation from the tyranny of the present usurper.

Henry, Earl of Richmond, was at this time detained in a kind of honorable custody by the Duke of Brittany, and his

descent, which seemed to give him some pretensions to the crown, had been a great object of jealousy, both in the late and present reign. As all the descendants of the house of York were either women or minors, it was suggested by the Bishop of Ely, and readily assented to, that the only means of overturning the present usurpation was to unite the opposite factions by contracting a marriage between the Earl of Richmond and the Princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV., and thereby blend together the opposite pretensions of their families.

In consequence of these views, the prelate, by means of Reginald Bray, steward to the Countess of Richmond, first opened the project of the union to that lady, and the plan appeared so advantageous to her son, and at the same time so likely to succeed, that it admitted of no hesitation.

Dr. Lewis, a physician who had access to the queen-dowager in her sanctuary, carried the proposals to her, and found that revenge for the murder of her brother, and of her three sons, apprehensions for her surviving family, and the indignation against her confinement, easily overcame all her prejudices against the house of Lancaster, and procured her approbation of a marriage to which age and birth seemed to invite them. She secretly borrowed a sum of money in the city, sent it over to Richmond, required his oath to celebrate the marriage as soon as he should arrive in England, advised him to levy as many foreign troops as possible, and promised to join him, on his first appearance, with all the friends and partisans of the family.

But it was impossible that so extensive a conspiracy could be conducted, so as to escape the vigilant eye of Richard, and he soon received intelligence that his enemies, headed by the Duke of Buckingham, were forming a conspiracy against him. He immediately put himself in a position of defence, by levying troops in the north, and he summoned the duke to appear at court, in such terms as seemed to promise him a renewal of their former friendship. But that nobleman, well acquainted with the treachery of Richard, replied only by taking arms in Wales, and giving the signal to his accomplices for a general insurrec-

tion in all parts of the country. Unfortunately, at that time, from incessant rains and severe storms, the Severn and other rivers swelled to an extent never before known in the memory of man, which rendered them impassable, and prevented Buckingham from marching to join his associates. The Welsh who composed his army, partly from superstition at this extraordinary event, and partly distressed for want of food, owing to the floods, deserted, and Buckingham, finding himself in this predicament, put on a disguise and hid himself in the house of an old servant of his family, but being discovered, was taken to the king at Salisbury, and instantly executed, November 2 1483. The other conspirators, hearing of the Duke of Buckingham's misfortune, immediately dispersed. The Earl of Richmond, in concert with his friends, had sailed from St. Malo with a body of five thousand men, but meeting contrary winds did not arrive on the coast of England until after the dispersion of his friends, and was obliged to return to Brittany.

The king, everywhere triumphant, and fortified by this unsuccessful attempt to dethrone him, ventured at last to summon a parliament, which met on January 23, 1484. His enemies being now at his feet, had no choice left, but were constrained to recognize his authority, and to acknowledge his right to the crown. His only son, Edward, then in his twelfth year, was created Prince of Wales; the duties of tonnage and poundage were granted to the king for life, and, to reconcile the people to his government, some popular laws were passed.

On April 9, 1484, Edward, Prince of Wales, died, and shortly afterward Queen Anne, it is said, was poisoned by her husband.

Richard knew that the Earl of Richmond would never be formidable only from his projected marriage with the Princess Elizabeth, the true heir to the crown; he therefore determined to procure a papal dispensation, and to marry that princess, his own niece, and thus to unite in his own family their contending titles.

The queen-dowager, eager to recover her lost authority, did not decline this alliance, or show any horror at marrying her daughter to the murderer of her three sons and brother, and she even joined so far her interests with those of the usurper,

that she wrote to all her followers desiring them to withdraw from the Earl of Richmond, an injury which the earl could never afterward forgive. Richard flattered himself that the nation, seeing all danger of a disputed succession removed, would acquiesce in his government, and forgive all the crimes which he had committed in paving the way to the throne.

But the crimes of Richard were so horrid, so revolting to humanity, that the natural sentiments of men, without regard to politics or party, were sufficient to render his government unstable, and every person of probity and honor was earnest to prevent the sceptre from being longer polluted by the bloody and faithless hand which held it.

All the exiles flocked to the Earl of Richmond in Brittany, and exhorted him to hasten his attempt for a new invasion, and to prevent the marriage of the Princess Elizabeth, which must prove fatal to all his hopes.

The earl, sensible of the urgent necessity, but dreading the treachery of Peter Landais, who had entered into an agreement with Richard for betraying him, was obliged to look to his present safety, and he made his escape to the court of France. Charles VIII., who had now succeeded to the throne, gave him countenance and protection, and assisted him in his enterprise. He set sail from Harfleur, in Normandy, on August 1, 1485, with a small army of two thousand men, and after a voyage of six days arrived at Milford Haven, in Wales, where he landed without opposition, hoping the Welsh would regard him as their countryman.

Richard, who knew not from what quarter he might expect the enemy, had taken post at Nottingham, in the centre of the kingdom, and having given commissions to different persons in the several counties to oppose the enemy, purposed, on the first alarm, to fly personally to the place exposed to danger.

But the danger to which Richard was chiefly exposed proceeded not so much from the zeal of his open enemies as from the infidelity of his pretended friends. Scarcely any nobleman of distinction was sincerely attached to his cause, except the Duke of Norfolk; all those who feigned the most loyalty were only watching for an opportunity to betray and desert him.

But the persons of whom he entertained the greatest suspicion were Lord Stanley and his brother Sir William, whose connections with the family of Richmond were never entirely forgotten. When he empowered Lord Stanley to levy forces, he retained his eldest son, Lord Strange, as a pledge for his fidelity; and that nobleman was, on his account, obliged to employ great caution in his proceedings.

He raised a powerful army of his friends and retainers, but without openly declaring himself, and although Henry had received secret assurances of his friendly intentions, the armies on both sides knew not what to infer from his equivocal behavior.

The two armies at last approached each other at Bosworth, near Leicester, August. 22, 1485—Henry at the head of six thousand men, Richard with an army of double that number—and a decisive action was every hour expected between them.

Stanley, who commanded seven thousand men, took care to post himself at Atherstone, not far from the hostile camps, and he made such a disposition of his men as enabled him, on occasion, to join either party. Richard had too much sagacity not to discover his intentions from these movements, but he kept the secret from his own men, for fear of discouraging them. He took not immediate revenge on Stanley's son, as some of his courtiers advised, because he hoped that so valuable a pledge would induce the father to prolong still further his ambiguous conduct, and he hastened to decide, by arms, the quarrel with his competitor, being certain that a victory over Richmond would enable him to take ample revenge on all his enemies, open and concealed.

Soon after the battle began Lord Stanley appeared in the field, and declared for the Earl of Richmond.

This measure had a considerable effect on both armies. It inspired unusual courage into Richmond's soldiers; it threw Richard's into dismay and confusion. The intrepid tyrant, sensible of his desperate situation, cast his eyes around the field, and observing his rival at no great distance, he drove against him with fury, in hope that either Richmond's death or his own would decide the victory between them. He killed with his own hand Sir William Brandon, standard-bearer to the earl;

he dismounted Sir John Cheney ; he was now within reach of Richmond himself, who declined not the combat, when Sir William Stanley, breaking in with his troops, surrounded Richard, who, fighting bravely to the last moment, was overwhelmed by numbers and perished by a fate too mild and honorable for his multiplied enormities. His men everywhere sought for safety by flight.

The loss of Richard's army was over four thousand slain, besides the Duke of Norfolk and other leading noblemen.

His body was found covered by his dead enemies, and buried by the nuns of Leicester in their church there.

Thus died Richard, the last of the Plantagenets, in the thirty-fifth year of his age, and the second year of his reign. Leaving no male issue, he was succeeded by Henry, Earl of Richmond, first of the Tudors.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: James III.; France: Louis XI., Charles VIII.; Emperor of the West, Frederick III.

The reign of the house of Plantagenet expired with Richard III., on Bosworth Field. The change of dynasty forms of itself no historical epoch; but in a limited or constitutional monarchy this change is generally accompanied by some revolution in the state, which gives it the character of a true historical era.

The reigns of Henry VII. and his successors of the House of Tudor bear a distinct character from those of the Plantagenet princes. The exhaustion of the kingdom through the protracted wars of the Roses, and the almost entire annihilation of the greater English nobility, enabled the Tudors to rule with a despotism unknown to their predecessors.

The period of the Plantagenets forms, on the whole, one of the most important and interesting epochs of English history. In it were established all those institutions by which our liberties are secured. The leading political feature which it presents is the gradual development of the English constitution out of feudalism. The first ostensible act which marks our re-

generated nationality is the Great Charter, wrung from the pusillanimous and tyrannical John. "From this era," says Mr. Hallam, "a new soul was infused into the people of England. Her liberties, at the best long in abeyance, became a tangible possession, and those indefinite aspirations for the laws of Edward the Confessor were changed into a steady regard for the Great Charter."

In the subsequent struggles for our liberties, *Magna Charta* was repeatedly appealed to as their foundation, and repeatedly confirmed by the acts of different sovereigns. The weak and long reign of John's successor, Henry III., served to foster the infancy of English freedom. It appears from the writings of Bracton, who filled the office of a judge, toward the conclusion of that reign, that the royal prerogative was even in those early days defined and limited by law. Not only was the king considered by that writer as subject to the law, but also to his court of earls and barons, who, indeed, before the existence of Parliament, were the law-makers.

The establishment of the last-named great council of the nation forms, in a constitutional point of view, the chief glory of the Plantagenet era.

From the constitution we naturally turn our view to those who were its subjects. As early, at least, as the reign of Henry III., the legal equality of all freemen below the rank of the peerage appears to have been completely established. The civil rights of individuals were protected by that venerable body of ancient customs, which, under the name of the common law, still obtains in our courts of justice. Its origin is lost in the obscurity of remote antiquity. A very small portion of it may be traced to the Saxon times; but the greater part must have sprung up since the conquest, for we find the pecuniary penalties which marked the Saxon legislation exchanged in criminal cases for capital punishment.

The law was administered under the Plantagenets by three courts, which still exist: the King's Bench, the Common Pleas, and the Exchequer, the origin of which has been narrated in the history of the Anglo-Norman constitution.

It is difficult to trace the steps by which villeinage was

gradually mitigated under the Plantagenets; but, on the whole, it is certain that at the termination of that dynasty it had almost entirely disappeared. Tenants in villeinage were gradually transformed into copyholders. Villeins bound to personal service escaped to distant parts of the country, where they could not be easily traced and reclaimed, and entered into free and voluntary service under new masters. Others hid themselves in towns, where a residence for a year made them free by law; something must also be attributed to manumissions. The influence of the church was exerted in behalf of this degraded class, and the repentant lord was exhorted by his spiritual adviser to give freedom to his fellow-Christians.

As public opinion became more enlightened and humane, the courts of law leaned to the side of the oppressed peasantry in all suits in which their rights were concerned. In the reign of Edward III. regular statutes were framed for the protection of artisans and husbandmen.

The popular insurrection in the time of Richard II. betrays an advance in the condition of the lower classes; and though it shows a great amount of villeinage, discovers, at the same time, a vast extension of freedom.

With regard to the general progress of the nation, we perceive, under the rule of the Plantagenets, a notable increase in its wealth and intelligence, as well as in its freedom.

The woollen manufactures were established in various parts of England, and began to supply foreign nations. In the reign of Edward III. the English were remarkable for their excellence in the arts of peace as well as war. A rich literature had been produced, adorned with the names of Chancer, Wickliffe, and Mandeville; while in matters of religion the principles of the Reformation were already developed and promulgated. Assisted by the invention of printing, which was introduced into England in the reign of Edward IV., this progress might have gone on to the most happy results had not certain events occurred to retard it. Henry IV., in order to support his usurpation to the crown, found it expedient to court the Established Church, and to crush the Reformation of Wickliffe, which had also compromised itself by the excesses of some of its followers.

The wars of Henry V. diverted the attention of the English from domestic to foreign affairs; while the civil disturbances which ensued under Henry VI., being concerned merely about a dynasty, and involving not, like those under the Stuarts, any great public principle, served only to damp the genius and energy of the nation, and disposed it to bend under the tyranny of its subsequent monarchs.

The population, at the end of the reign of the Plantagenets, probably amounted to three millions.



THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

A.D. 1485-1603.

CATHERINE of France, widow of Henry V., second king of England of the Lancastrian branch of the Plantagenet line, married, in the year 1423, Sir Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman, of ancient lineage but small estate, who had been attached to the late king's suite.

She bore him two sons, Edmund and Jasper, created (by their half-brother King Henry VI.), the former Earl of Richmond, and latter Earl of Pembroke.

In the year 1455 the Earl of Richmond married Margaret Beaufort, daughter of the Duke of Somerset, and great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt and Catherine Swynford, whose offspring had been legitimized by the Pope, the king, and Parliament. Margaret bore him one son, Henry, born the 26th of July, 1456, who became Earl of Richmond three months afterward, on the death of his father, and in the year 1485 became the first king of the Tudor line in England as Henry VII.

Henry VII.—A.D. 1485-1505.

Born at Pembroke Castle, July 26, 1456.

Proclaimed king on the battle-field, by Sir William Stanley, August 22, 1485.
Crowned, October 30, 1485.

Married the Princess Elizabeth Plantagenet, daughter and heiress of King Edward IV. Issue :

Arthur, Prince of Wales ; married Catherine of Aragon ; died 1502.

Henry, afterward Henry VIII.

Edmund, Duke of Somerset.

Margaret, married James IV., King of Scotland ; mother of James V., who married Magdalene, daughter of Francis I., King of France. James married, second, Mary, daughter of Duke of Guise. Issue :

Mary, Queen of Scots.

Mary, married Louis XII. of France.

Eleanor, married Earl of Cumberland.

HENRY, the founder of the Tudor dynasty of English kings, son of the Earl of Richmond and Margaret Beaufort, his wife, was born at Pembroke Castle, South Wales, July 26, 1456, where he resided for some years, even after that place had been granted to the Herberts, the chief of whom had charge of him.

He was attainted soon after, when the crown passed to the house of York. His education was conducted by his mother, a woman of piety and learning, and he grew up a thoughtful, serious boy, much inclined to religious studies. When the house of Lancaster was restored in 1470, young Richmond was placed at Eton College, where he was seen by Henry VI., who predicted that he would be king. The next year saw the return of Edward IV. and the death of Henry VI. and his only son, the Prince of Wales, when Richmond became chief of the Lancastrian party.

By letters patent from Richard II., in 1397, granted to the Duke of Lancaster, the Beauforts were to be admitted to all honors and dignities, which placed them in the line of succession to the crown. But when Henry IV. ratified the act of Richard, he added after the words "all honors and dignities" the words "except to the royal dignity."

Thus the Beauforts were not from the first excluded from the claim to the throne, and Henry of Richmond had plausible

ground for asserting that he was the lineal heir of John of Gaunt, and head of the house of Lancaster.

Henry was sent to Pembroke Castle after the triumph of the Yorkists, and going to Tenby, sailed thence to France. Landing in Brittany, he was seized by the duke of that country, who held him a prisoner for many years, refusing to surrender him to Edward IV.

In 1484, when the usurpation of Richard III. had caused much discontent in England, Henry was recognized as chief by all parties opposed to the government, and a marriage was arranged between him and the Princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV.

The Duke of Brittany liberated him, and with a small force he sailed for England. He was unsuccessful, his fleet was dispersed, and his party in England crushed for a time by Richard. After a variety of romantic adventures, he raised a large force, and sailed from Harfleur in the beginning of August, 1485, and landed in Milford Haven.

The victory which he gained at Bosworth was entirely decisive, resulting in the total rout and dispersion of the royal army, and the death of the king himself.

Joy for this great success suddenly prompted the soldiers on the field of battle to bestow on their victorious general the appellation of king, which he had not hitherto assumed, and the acclamations of "Long live Henry the Seventh!" by a natural and unpremeditated movement, resounded from all quarters. To bestow some appearance of formality on this species of military election, Sir William Stanley brought a crown, or ornament which Richard had worn in battle, which he had found among the spoils, and placed it upon the head of the victor. Henry, without hesitation, accepted the gift tendered him, and chose the part which his ambition suggested, and to which he seemed to be invited by his present success.

His journey to London soon after the battle, August 22, 1485, had more the appearance of an established monarch making a peaceable progress through his dominions, than of a prince who had opened his way to the throne by force of arms. The acclamations of the people were everywhere loud

and no less sincere and hearty, and the nation presaged great security from the new scene which opened before them.

The mayor and guilds of London received him as he approached the city, and the citizens were zealous in their expressions of satisfaction.

Henry's first act, on his arrival, was to renew before the council and principal nobility the promise which he had given to celebrate his marriage with the Princess Elizabeth; but, though bound by honor as well as by interest to complete this alliance, he was resolved to postpone it until the ceremony of his coronation should be finished, and till his title should be recognized by Parliament. Being anxious to support his personal and hereditary right to the throne, he dreaded that a preceding marriage with Elizabeth should imply a participation of sovereignty in her, and raise doubts of his own title by the House of Lancaster.

Henry was crowned at Westminster on October 30, 1485, by Cardinal Bouchier, Archbishop of Canterbury, at which time he created his uncle, Jasper, Earl of Pembroke, to be Duke of Bedford; Thomas, Lord Stanley, to be Earl of Derby, and Edward Courtney, Earl of Devonshire. He also established, for security of his person, as well as pomp, a band of fifty archers, who were called yeomen of the guard, and declared the institution to be perpetual. On the 7th of November following the parliament assembled at Westminster. The majority immediately appeared to be devoted partisans of the new king. It was voted and agreed that the inheritance of the crown should rest, remain, and abide in the king, and the succession secured to the heirs of his body. Parliament next reversed the attainders which had passed against the partisans of the House of Lancaster, and, at the king's instigation, passed an act of attainder against the late king, the Duke of Norfolk, Earl of Surrey, Viscount Lovel, Lords Zouche and Ferrars, and others who had fought on Richard's side at Bosworth.

On January 18, 1486, Henry married Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV. This was celebrated with greater appearance of joy than either his first entry into the city or his coronation. Henry noticed, with much displeasure, this

general favor shown to the House of York. The suspicions which arose from it disturbed his whole reign, bred ill-feeling toward his queen, and poisoned all his domestic enjoyments. Though virtuous, amiable, and confiding, she never met with a proper return of affection, and the malignant ideas of faction still in his sullen mind prevailed over all the sentiments of conjugal tenderness.

An insurrection broke out in 1486, headed by Viscount Lovel, the Staffords, and some other Yorkist families, but was soon suppressed, and some of the principal leaders were executed. On the 20th of September the queen gave birth to a son, who was named Arthur, in memory of the famous English king of that name, from whom it was pretended the family of Tudor derived its descent.

Henry's government was becoming unpopular, chiefly owing to his prejudices against the House of York, which was generally beloved by the nation, and which, for that very reason, became every day more especially the object of his hatred and jealousy. Not only a preference on all occasions was given to the Lancastrians, but many of the opposite party were treated with the greatest severity, and had been deprived of their property by acts of attainder. The effects of his unpopular government soon appeared by incidents of an extraordinary nature.

There lived in Oxford a priest, one Richard Simon, who possessed some enterprise, and who determined to disturb Henry's government. For this purpose he raised a pretender to the crown in the person of a baker's son, named Lambert Simnel, a lad of fifteen years of age, whom he represented to be the Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence, escaped from prison, but knowing the impostor could not bear a close inspection, he therefore determined to open the campaign in Ireland. That island was zealously attached to the House of York, and had an affectionate regard to the memory of Clarence, who had been their Lieutenant.

No sooner did Simnel present himself to the deputy, the Earl of Kildare, in Dublin, and claim his protection, as the unfortunate Warwick, than that credulous nobleman espoused his

cause. The people, with one consent, tendered their allegiance to Simnel as the true Plantagenet, led him to the Castle of Dublin, and proclaimed him king, as Edward VI. The whole island followed the example, and not a sword was drawn in Henry's quarrel (1487).

When this intelligence reached the king it gave him great trouble. He determined immediately to face his enemies, but feared to leave England, where he suspected the conspiracy originated.

He immediately called his ministers and councillors together, and laid plans for a vigorous defence of his authority, and the suppression of his enemies.

The first event which followed these deliberations was the seizure of the queen-dowager, the forfeiture of all her lands and revenues, and her close confinement in a nunnery. The next measure was, that the Earl of Warwick should be taken from the Tower, be led in procession through the streets of London, so that the people should be convinced of the absurd imposture of Simnel. The expedient had its effect in England, but in Ireland the people still persisted in their revolt. Margaret, widow of Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, hearing of the malignant jealousy entertained by Henry against her family, sent a body of two thousand veteran Germans, under command of Martin Swartz, a brave and experienced officer, to join Simnel in Ireland. The countenance given by this accession of force raised the courage of the Irish, they invaded England, landing at Foudrey, in Lancashire, and advanced on Coventry, and, on June 6, 1487, met the army of the king at Stoke. Here a severe battle was fought; the rebels were beaten, and Simnel and his tutor taken prisoners.

Simnel was too contemptible to be an object either of apprehension or resentment to Henry.

He was pardoned and made a turnspit in the king's kitchen, and was afterward advanced to the rank of a falconer.

Henry had now leisure to revenge himself on his enemies. A strict inquiry was made after those who had assisted or favored the rebels, and heavy fines were levied on the delinquents, the proceedings being quite arbitrary. After the king had satisfied

his resentment, he determined to gratify his people in a point which, though a mere ceremony, was ardently desired by them.

The queen had been married two years, but had not yet been crowned, which had given great discontent; so, on November 25, 1487, the ceremony was performed, and to show a disposition still more gracious, Henry restored to liberty the Marquis of Dorset, who had been able to clear himself of all the suspicions entertained against him.

In the year 1488, the people of Durham and York, always discontented with Henry's government, resisted the payment of taxes, flew to arms, attacked the Earl of Northumberland in his house, and put him to death; having incurred such deep guilt, their mutinous humors prompted them to declare against the king himself. An army was collected by the king, and under the Earl of Surrey marched against the rebels, who were quickly suppressed, their leaders taken prisoners, and soon afterward executed.

On July 7, 1491, on pretence of a French war, Henry issued a commission for levying a "benevolence" on the people, a species of taxation which had been abolished by a recent law of Richard III. This oppression (for such it really was) fell chiefly on the commercial part of the nation.

Parliament met on October 27th following, and, inflamed by the idea of subduing France, and enriching themselves by the spoils of that nation, they gave in to the wishes of the king, and voted the supplies demanded of them.

The nobility were universally seized with a desire for military glory, and dreamed of no less than carrying their banners to the gates of Paris, and putting the crown of France on the head of their sovereign.

Henry crossed the sea, and arrived at Calais on October 6, 1491, with an army of forty thousand men, under the command of the Duke of Bedford and the Earl of Oxford. He immediately marched into the enemy's country, and laid siege to Boulogne, but owing to disappointments in assistance from Maximilian, King of the Romans, and the King of Spain, Henry was induced to make peace with the French king, who agreed to pay to him the sum of seven hundred and forty-five thousand crowns,

partly as a reimbursement of the sums advanced to Brittany, partly as arrears of the pension due to Edward IV., and he stipulated a yearly pension to Henry, and his heirs, of twenty-five thousand crowns (1492). Thus Henry made profit on his subjects for the war, and upon his enemies for the peace. And the people agreed that he had fulfilled his promise, when he said to the Parliament that he would make the war maintain itself. The Duchess of Burgundy, still full of resentment for the ruin of her family and its partisans, rather irritated than discouraged by the ill-success of her past enterprise, was determined to at least disturb the government which she found so difficult to destroy. By means of her agents, she propagated the story that her nephew, Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, had escaped from the Tower, when his elder brother, the young king, was murdered, and that he still lay somewhere concealed. Finding this rumor greedily received by the people, she began looking about for some young man suitable to personate that unfortunate prince. There was in the reign of Edward IV. one Warbeck, a renegade Jew, resident of London, who had there a son born to him, and who had obtained the king's favor: it was by some believed that Edward, among his amorous adventures, had a secret connection with Warbeck's wife, and people thus accounted for the resemblance, which was afterward remarked, between young Perkin and that monarch. Some years after the birth of this son, Warbeck moved to Tourney, and thence, from place to place, and difficult to be traced by the most diligent inquiry. But at last, becoming known to some of the emissaries of the Duchess Margaret, who, struck with the concurrence of so many circumstances, desired to be made acquainted with the man so suitable for her purpose. She found him to exceed her most sanguine expectations. The lessons necessary to be taught him, in order to his personating the Duke of York, were soon learned by a youth of such quick penetration; but as the time was not then favorable for the enterprise, Margaret, in order to conceal him, sent him under care of Lady Brampton into Portugal, where he remained a year, unknown to all the world.

He subsequently landed at Cork and assumed the name of

Richard Plantagenet. The news soon reached France, and as it was before peace had been made with England, Charles, prompted by the Duchess of Burgundy, sent him an invitation to visit Paris (where he was received with all the marks of regard due to the Duke of York), settled on him a handsome pension, assigned him magnificent lodgings, and gave him a guard for his person. From France the credulity spread into England, and above a hundred gentlemen came to Paris to offer him their services.

When peace was concluded between France and England, Henry applied to Charles to have Warbeck delivered into his hands; but the king declined to betray a young man, of whatever birth, whom he had invited into his kingdom, and would agree only to dismiss him. The pretended Richard retired to Burgundy and craved the assistance and protection of the duchess, laying before her all the proofs of his birth. The princess affected ignorance of his pretensions, even put on the appearance of distrust, put many questions to him, affected astonishment at his answers, and at last, after long and severe scrutiny, burst out into joy and admiration at his wonderful deliverance, embraced him as her nephew, the true image of her brother, the sole heir of the Plantagenets, and the legitimate heir to the throne. She immediately assigned him handsome lodgings suitable to his birth, and gave him a guard of thirty halberdiers, and on all occasions honored him with the name of the White Rose of England (1493).

It was not the populace alone of England that gave credit to Warbeck's pretensions.

Men of the highest rank, disgusted with Henry's government, began to turn their eyes toward the new claimant, and some entered into correspondence with him. Even Sir William Stanley, Lord Chamberlain, who had been instrumental in raising Henry to the throne, entered into the project of revolt in favor of his enemy. The king was informed of all these particulars, and proceeded deliberately in counter-working the projects of his enemies.

His first object was to ascertain the death of the real Duke of York, and to confirm the opinion that had always prevailed

in regard to that event. He next dispersed his spies all over Flanders, and procured sufficient evidence of the conspiracy, and the pedigree, adventures, life, and conversation of the pretended Duke of York was all laid before him, which he immediately published. The conspirators were reserved for a slower and surer vengeance.

He soon arrested the leading noblemen interested in the revolt. They were tried and executed, and subsequently Sir William Stanley was accused. He denied the charge, but was immediately committed to the Tower, and after a delay of six weeks was brought to trial, condemned, and on February 15, 1495, executed.

The fate of Stanley made a great impression on the nation, and struck the partisans of Warbeck with dismay.

Warbeck now directed his course to Scotland, where he had been recommended by the King of France to the attention of James IV., and received a favorable reception from that monarch, who assured him that, whatever he might be, he should never repent putting himself into his hands. James was seduced to believe the story of Warbeck's birth, and carried his confidence so far as to give him in marriage the Lady Catherine Gordon, related to himself, a young lady eminent for her beauty and virtue.

In 1497 Henry demanded from the King of Scotland that Warbeck should be delivered into his hands. James replied that he himself was no judge of the young man's pretensions, but having received him as a guest, and promised him his protection, he was determined not to betray him. Fearing, however, that while Warbeck remained in his kingdom he should have no solid peace with Henry, he privately desired him to leave Scotland.

Warbeck held consultation with his followers, Herne, Skelton, and Asley, and they decided to try the affections of the Cornish, who were then in rebellion with Henry. No sooner did he appear there than the populace, to the number of three thousand, flocked to his standard, when for the first time he took on him the title of Richard IV.; he then marched to Exeter, and invited the citizens to join him.

When Henry was informed of Warbeck's landing in England he expressed great joy, raised an army, and prepared to march on the enemy.

Warbeck, informed of these great preparations, immediately left Exeter and retired to Taunton. Though his followers now amounted to seven thousand men, he despaired of success, and secretly withdrew to the sanctuary of Beaulieu, in the New Forest. The Cornish rebels submitted to the king's mercy.

Henry now employed persons to treat with Warbeck, offering him a pardon if he would deliver himself into the king's hands, which having accepted, he was conducted to London, where he was obliged to make a full confession, but attempting to escape, he was confined in the Tower, and being there detected in a conspiracy with the Earl of Warwick, then a prisoner, for this new attempt he was tried, condemned, and hanged at Tyburn, 1499.

In 1498 Henry fitted out Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian, and resident of Bristol, in search of new countries. He discovered Newfoundland, and sailing southward, made the mainland of America toward the sixtieth degree of north latitude.

Soon after, the Earl of Warwick, on the pretence of attempting to escape from the Tower, was brought to trial, and on November 21, 1499, beheaded on Tower Hill.

This act of tyranny caused great discontent, which Henry vainly endeavored to alleviate by alleging that his ally, Ferdinand of Aragon, refused to give his daughter Catherine in marriage to his son Arthur while any male descendant of the House of York survived.

On November 14, 1501, the king had the satisfaction of completing the marriage between Arthur, Prince of Wales, then in his sixteenth year, and the Infanta Catherine of Aragon, aged eighteen. The marriage proved unfortunate, as the young prince soon afterward sickened and died, April 2, 1502. Henry, desirous to continue his alliance with Spain, and also unwilling to restore Catherine's dowry, obliged his second son, Henry, a boy of twelve years of age, whom he created Prince of Wales, to be contracted in marriage to the Infanta, an event which was afterward attended with most important conse-

quences. In this same year another marriage was celebrated which was also, in the next age, productive of great events, and the ultimate union of England and Scotland—the marriage of Margaret, the king's eldest daughter, with James IV., King of Scotland. But, amidst these prosperous incidents, the king met with a domestic calamity in the death of his queen in childbirth, February 11, 1503. The infant did not long survive her.

The situation of the king's affairs, both at home and abroad, being now in every respect very fortunate, he gave full scope to his natural propensity, and avarice, which had ever been his ruling passion, being increased by age and encouraged by absolute authority, broke all restraints of shame or justice. He had found two ministers, Empson and Dudley, perfectly qualified to second his rapacious and tyrannical inclinations to prey upon his defenceless people. By the revival of old laws and other means he amassed a fortune of £2,000,000. The chief means of oppression were the penal statutes, which, without consideration of rank, quality, or services, were put in execution against all men. He also extorted money from his subjects on pretence of making war, and sold pardons and traded in offices belonging to the court and church.

The clergy were not friendly to Henry, yet he followed the policy of the House of Lancaster, causing at least two Lollards to be burned and severely persecuting many others.

He sought to reform the church, and in his reign we find the first indications of that course which, in his successors' time, ended in the Reformation. He also encouraged commerce and patronized voyages of discovery.

The reign of Henry VII. was, in the main, fortunate for his people at home, and honorable abroad. He put an end to the civil wars which had so long harassed the nation; he suppressed the former exorbitant power of the nobility, and, with the friendship of some foreign princes, acquired the consideration of all. He loved peace, without fearing war.

Henry was a tall, thin man, of a severe yet anxious appearance, who never moved abroad without his guards, and made no attempt to gain the favor of his people by mingling freely with them, as the Yorkist princes had done. His courage and

address gained him a throne, but he had none of the other high qualities that ought to accompany such a position.

He had known poverty in his youth, and his every action afterward seemed devoted to guarding against such a calamity for the future. Hence, he cared not how he gained money, though, no doubt, he was best pleased when he could extract it from the Yorkists.

Their depression, indeed, seemed the great purpose of his life, after the acquisition of treasure, and he often managed to combine the two.

His treatment of his wife was bad. He kept her in complete dependence; he took her plate in pledge when he lent her money to pay her debts.

The whole character of his reign was in accordance with his private life—harsh, cold, and suspicious; but it forms a memorable era as being the turning-point when the old forms of government and living began to pass away, and the foundations were laid of something like the present state of society.

Henry died of consumption at the Palace of Richmond, April 21, 1509, after a reign of twenty-three years and eight months, and in the fifty-second year of his age, and was succeeded by his second son, Henry.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: James III., James IV.; France: Charles VIII., Louis XII.; Emperors of the West: Frederick III., Maximilian.

Henry VIII.—A.D. 1509–1547.

Born at Greenwich, January 28, 1491.

Crowned June 24, 1509.

Married:

1. Catherine of Aragon, widow of his brother Arthur, Prince of Wales.
Divorced. Issue:
Henry, Duke of Cornwall. Died young.
Mary, who ascended the throne.
2. Anne Boleyn, daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn. Beheaded. Issue:
A son, the Duke of Cornwall, who died young.
Elizabeth, who ascended the throne.
3. Jane Seymour, daughter of Sir John Seymour. Issue:
Edward, Duke of Cornwall, who succeeded his father as Edward VI.

4. Ann, daughter of the Duke of Cleves. Divorced.
 5. Catherine Howard. Beheaded.
 6. Catherine, daughter of Sir Thomas Parr. She survived him.
- Henry died at Whitehall, January 28, 1547.

HENRY, second king of England of the Tudor dynasty, and second son of Henry VII. and his wife Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV., was born in Greenwich Palace, January 28, 1491; was created Prince of Wales on the death of his brother Arthur, and recognized as heir-apparent, April 2, 1502.

His father intended that he should become the head of the English Church, and was educating him for the archiepiscopal See of Canterbury.

Arthur, Prince of Wales, had married Catherine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, receiving with her a dowry of two hundred thousand crowns, one-half of which had been paid. On his death her parents desired that she should be sent home, and that the money which had been paid should be refunded. But Henry objected, and proposed that Catherine should marry the new heir, who was five years her junior. It was agreed to, and she was betrothed to Henry, June 25, 1503. The following year a dispensation was procured from the Pope, on the ground that Arthur's marriage was never consummated.

The king, who was always conscientious when ill, appears at this time to have had some scruples on the subject of the marriage, and would have restored the princess to her parents, but he could not bear to part with her dowry.

The death of Henry VII. was attended with as open joy by the people as decency would permit, and the accession and coronation of his son Henry gave universal satisfaction. Instead of a monarch jealous, severe, and avaricious, who, in proportion as he advanced in years, was sinking deeper in those unpopular vices, a young prince had succeeded to the throne who gave promise of his future conduct. His person was handsome, his mind cultivated, and he was fond of domestic pleasures; and as the contending parties of York and Lancaster were now at last fully united in his person, men fully expected that impartiality of administration which had long been unknown in England.

On Henry's ascending the throne, April 22, 1509, it was urged that his marriage with Catherine should immediately take place, because of the anxiety to secure the succession. The Wars of the Roses in the preceding century had made a lasting impression on the English mind, and they wished to obviate it; as, should Henry die without an heir, there would ensue an immediate contest for the crown between the houses of York and Tudor, both represented by women—the former by the Countess of Salisbury, daughter of the Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV., and the latter by the daughter of the late king. The marriage was therefore solemnized two months after his father's death, on June 7th, at Greenwich, and on the 24th of the same month Henry and his queen were crowned.

The popularity of Henry's government, his undisputed title, his large treasure, the tranquillity of his people, were subjects which rendered his administration easy and prosperous. The situation of his foreign affairs was no less happy and desirous.

His first acts were to dismiss the obnoxious ministers of the late king, and returning fines that had been unjustly or oppressively exacted. Much was hoped and expected of him, and not altogether in vain.

Though addicted to pleasure, he was not unmindful of business, and paid special attention to foreign affairs. His manners were pleasing, yet he showed at an early period, not a little of that obstinacy which became his trait in after life.

In 1510 he received the "Golden Rose" from Pope Julius II., who wished to obtain his aid to expel the French from Italy; but at first he was disposed to be moderate, and pursue the policy of his father.

He made a treaty with France, and afterward entered into engagements with his father-in-law, guaranteeing his Spanish dominions against the French, and sent an ambassador to Rome to promote a pacification.

After a time he was induced to join an alliance, or Holy League, of the Pope, King Ferdinand, and the Duke of Venice, against France, and on February 4, 1512, war was declared, and Parliament being summoned, readily granted supplies for a purpose so much favored by the nation.

An army of ten thousand men, under the Marquis of Dorset, was dispatched to France, but, owing to the failure of Ferdinand's promised assistance, they returned to England without accomplishing any great result.

Notwithstanding his disappointments in this campaign Henry was still encouraged to prosecute his warlike measures against Louis, especially as Leo X., who had succeeded Julius on the papal throne, had detached the Emperor Maximilian from the French interest. He determined to invade France, and, all on fire for military fame, was little discouraged by the prospect of a war with the Scotch, who had formed an alliance with France, and he had now got a minister who complied with all his inclinations, and flattered him in every scheme to which his sanguine and impetuous temper was inclined. Thomas Wolsey, Dean of Lincoln, and almoner to the king, surpassed in favor all his ministers, and was fast advancing toward that unrivalled grandeur which he afterward attained. He was the son of a wealthy butcher of Ipswich, who, though a priest, in less than twenty years, by unwearied diligence in everything but church affairs, raised himself from the humble position of tutor in the Marquis of Dorset's family, to be Lord Chancellor, Archbishop, Cardinal, and Papal Legate, and even aspired to become Pope. All the affairs of the kingdom passed through his hands, and he tried to grasp at those of all Christendom also. His household was as sumptuous as that of the king; rival monarchs heaped favors and pensions upon him; he seemed to make peace or war at his pleasure, and he had the absurd arrogance, in writing to foreign powers, to use the expression "*Ego et Rex Meus*" (I and my king), as if, as it was afterward remarked in Parliament, "the king was his servant."

As Archbishop Warham, who had been stripped of the Chancellorship that Wolsey might hold it, remarked, "This man is drunk with too much prosperity." For some years all went smoothly with him. The Duke of Buckingham incurred his displeasure and lost his head in consequence, and the proudest nobles no longer dared withstand him, while every quarrel between the King of France and the emperor only added to his

wealth, as he sold the aid of his king first to one party and then to another.

The war commenced in 1513 with a desperate naval engagement, in which Sir Edward Howard, the English admiral, was slain. On June 30th Henry landed at Calais with an army of fifty thousand men, and was there joined by the Emperor Maximilian, with some German and Flemish soldiers. Observing the disposition of the English monarch to be more bent on glory than interest, Maximilian enlisted in his service, wore the cross of St. George, and received one hundred crowns a day, as one of his subjects and captains.

Marching from Calais, he appeared before Terouanne, and having received intelligence of the approach of the French horse, ordered some troops to pass the Lis in order to oppose them. The cavalry of France, though they consisted chiefly of gentlemen who had behaved with great gallantry in many desperate actions in Italy, were, on sight of the enemy, seized with so unaccountable a panic that they immediately took to flight, and were pursued by the English and many officers of distinction were made prisoners.

This action, or rather rout, is sometimes called the battle of Guinegate, from the place where it was fought, but more commonly the battle of Spurs, because the French that day, August 16th, made more use of their spurs than their swords. Henry then continued the siege of Terouanne. After the fall of that place, August 22d, he laid siege to Tournay, which surrendered September 21st. The bishop of that city was lately dead, and Henry bestowed the administration of that see on his favorite Wolsey, and put him in immediate possession of the revenues, which were considerable; and as the season was now far advanced he thought proper to return to England with the greater part of his army.

The success which, during this summer, had attended Henry's arms in the north, was much more decisive.

James, King of Scotland, had assembled the whole force of his kingdom, and, having passed the Tweed, ravaged those parts of Northumberland which lay nearest that river. Meanwhile the Earl of Surrey, having collected a force of thirty

thousand men, marched to the defence of the country. The two armies met at Flodden, near the Cheviot Hills, September 9th. The action was desperate and protracted till night separated the combatants. The victory seemed yet undecided, and the numbers that fell on each side were nearly equal, amounting to about five thousand men; but the morning discovered where the advantage lay. The English had lost only men of small note, but the flower of the Scottish nobility had fallen in battle, and the king himself could nowhere be found. In searching the field the English met with a body resembling him, which was put in a coffin and sent to London.

When Margaret, Queen of Scotland, who was appointed regent during the minority of her son, applied for peace, Henry readily granted it, and took compassion on the helpless condition of his sister and nephew.

The following year (1514) Henry discovered that both the emperor and the King of Spain had deserted his alliance for that of Louis, and that they had listened to a proposition for a marriage for their common grandson, the Archduke Charles, to a daughter of the French king, although that young prince was already affianced to Henry's sister Mary. Under these circumstances Henry readily listened to the suggestion of his prisoner, the Duke of Longueville, for a peace with France, to be confirmed by Mary's marriage with Louis, who was a widower.

A treaty was easily adjusted between the monarchs, August 7, 1514, and stipulated that Tournay should remain in the hands of England; that Henry should receive one million crowns, being arrears due by treaty to his father and himself, and that Louis should marry his sister, the Princess Mary, receiving four hundred thousand crowns as her dower.

The marriage was consummated, and Louis died in less than three months afterward, January 1, 1515. He was succeeded by Francis, Count of Angoulême, a youth of twenty-one, who had married Louis's eldest daughter.

Shortly afterward Mary secretly married Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, to whom she had been formerly attached, and without Henry's consent, but through the influence of Wolsey

and the King of France, Henry became reconciled to the marriage, and they were permitted to return to England.

The success of Francis I. in Italy alarmed Europe, and the German emperor sought to engage Henry to act against France by holding out hopes of being made his successor.

The numerous enemies whom Wolsey's sudden elevation had raised him served only to rivet him faster in Henry's confidence. The artful prelate, well acquainted with the king's imperious temper, concealed from him the absolute ascendancy which he had acquired, and while he secretly directed all public councils, he ever pretended a blind submission to the will and authority of his master.

He had now been promoted to the see of York, with which he was allowed to unite that of Durham, next that of Winchester, and there seemed to be no end to his acquisitions. The Pope created him a cardinal (1515). No churchman, under color of exacting respect to religion, ever carried to a greater height the state and dignity of that character.

His train consisted of eight hundred servants, of whom many were knights and gentlemen; some even of the nobility put their children into his family as a place of education; and in order to gain them favor with their patron, allowed them to bear office as his servants. On the resignation of Warham, Chancellor, and Archbishop of Canterbury, the great seal was immediately delivered to him.

A strict administration of justice took place during his enjoyment of this high office, and no chancellor ever displayed greater impartiality in his decisions, deeper penetration of judgment, or more enlarged knowledge of law and equity.

Francis I., being desirous of recovering Tournay, succeeded, by means of flatteries and attentions, in gaining Wolsey's favor. By the cardinal's advice a treaty was entered into for the ceding of that town; and in order to give the measure a more graceful appearance, it was agreed that the dauphin and the Princess Mary, the king's daughter, both of them infants, should be betrothed, and that the city should be considered as the dowry of the princess. Francis also agreed to pay six hundred thousand crowns in twelve annual payments, and lest the cardinal should

think himself neglected, he promised him a yearly pension of twelve thousand livres, as an equivalent for his administration of the bishopric of Tournay.

The pride of Wolsey was at this time further increased by his being invested with the legatine power by the Pope, with the right of visiting all the monasteries and the clergy in England, and even of suspending all the laws of the church during a twelvemonth.

While Henry, indulging himself in pleasure and amusements, intrusted the government of his kingdom to his imperious minister, the death of the Emperor Maximilian left vacant the first station among Christian princes. The kings of France and Spain immediately declared themselves candidates for the imperial crown, and employed every expedient of money or intrigue which promised them success in so great a point of ambition.

Henry also was encouraged to advance his pretensions, but his minister, Pace, who was dispatched to the electors, found he began to solicit too late, and that the votes of all these princes were already engaged, either to one side or the other.

Charles ultimately prevailed, and thus fortune alone, without the assistance of prudence or valor, never reared up of a sudden so great a power as that which centred in him. He reaped the succession of Castile, of Aragon, of Austria, of the Netherlands; he inherited the conquest of Naples, of Grenada—election entitled him to the Empire.

Francis, disgusted with his ill-success, now applied himself, by way of counterpoise to the power of Charles, to cultivate the friendship of Henry, who possessed the felicity of being able, both by the native force of his kingdom and its situation, to hold the balance between those two powers.

He solicited an interview near Calais, in expectation of being able, by familiar conversation, to gain upon his friendship and confidence, and as Henry himself loved show and magnificence, and had entertained a curiosity of being personally acquainted with the French king, he cheerfully arranged all the preliminaries.

Meanwhile, the emperor, politic, though young, being informed of the intended interview, was apprehensive of the con-

sequences, and took the opportunity, in his passage from Spain to the Low Countries, to make the English king a still higher compliment, by paying him a visit in his own dominions. Henry and his queen hastened to meet him at Hythe.

Besides the marks of regard and attachment which Charles gave to Henry, he gained the cardinal to his interests, by holding out to him the hope of attaining the papacy. The views of Henry himself, after being disappointed of the imperial crown, were directed toward France as his ancient inheritance; and no power was more fitted than the emperor to assist him in such a design.

The day of Charles's departure (May 30, 1520), Henry went over to Calais, with the queen and his whole court, and thence proceeded to Guisnes, a small town near the frontiers. Francis attended in like manner, came to Ardres, a few miles distant; and the two monarchs met for the first time in the fields, at a place situated between these two towns, but still within the English territory, for Francis agreed to pay this compliment to Henry in consideration of that prince having crossed the sea that he might be present at the interview. Wolsey, to whom both kings had intrusted the regulation of the ceremonial, contrived this circumstance in order to do honor to his master. The nobility of France and England here displayed their magnificence with such emulation and profuse expense as procured for the place of interview the name of *The Field of the Cloth of Gold*. Many of the nobles involved themselves in such debt that they were not able to recover for a long time afterward.

The two monarchs, who were the most comely personages of the age, after a short, secret conference, and the interchange of visits of ceremony and friendship, and confidence being fully established between them, passed their time till their departure in tournaments and other entertainments more than any serious business.

Henry then paid a visit to the emperor and Margaret of Savoy, at Gravelines, and engaged them to go along with him to Calais, where the artful and politic Charles, by his arts, effaced all the friendship to which the frank and generous na-

ture of Francis had given birth. Charles completed the conquest of Wolsey by conferring Castilian sees upon him.

War breaking out the following year between the Emperor Charles and Francis, Henry was induced by Wolsey to favor the former, and enter into an offensive alliance with him.

About this time Leo X. published the sale of indulgences. The collectors of this revenue in Germany are said to have lived very immoral lives, and to have spent in taverns, gambling houses, and places still more infamous, the money which devout persons had saved from their usual expenses in order to purchase a remission of their sins. Martin Luther, an Augustine friar, professor in the University of Wittenberg, resenting the affront put upon his order, began to preach against the abuse in the sale of those indulgences, and being naturally of a fiery temper, and provoked by opposition, he proceeded to exclaim even against indulgences themselves, and carried away by the heat of dispute, to question the authority of the Pope.

The rumor of these troubles soon reached England, and as there still existed in that country followers of the Lollards, whose principles resembled those of Luther, the new doctrines secretly gained many friends among the laity of all ranks.

Henry had been educated in strict attachment to the Church of Rome, and he bore a particular prejudice to Luther. He therefore wrote a book in Latin against his principles, and sent a copy of it to the Pope. Leo received it with great regard and pleasure, and, in return, conferred on Henry the title of "Defender of the Faith," an appellation still retained by the kings and queens of England to the present day.

Luther soon published an answer to Henry, and treated him, without regard to his dignity, in the severest manner, which made the king still more prejudiced against the new doctrine, and as the controversy now became illustrious by Henry's entering it, it acquired new converts in every part of Europe.

The same year occurred the execution of the Duke of Buckingham, one of the greatest nobles of the realm, and descended in the female line from Edward III. His death was attributed to Wolsey, but also due to the jealousy of the king, who could not bear any one near him who had claims to the succession.

The death of Leo X. and elevation of Adrian VI. endangered the alliance between Charles and Henry, because of Wolsey's disappointment; but the emperor visited England, soothed the cardinal (who wanted to be Pope), and prevailed upon Henry to declare war against France; and this measure was founded upon so little reason that he could not show any good ground of quarrel but Francis's refusal to submit to his arbitration, and his sending the Duke of Albany to Scotland.

An English army under the Earl of Surrey landed at Cherbourg, but did little beyond burning and pillaging a few places of little note.

In the year 1523 Henry marched an army into Scotland under command of the Earl of Surrey, who ravaged the southern counties without opposition. The Scots had neither king nor regent to conduct them, and no nobleman of any vigor remained who was competent to conduct the government.

Henry, knowing the distressed condition of the country, offered the Scotch, if they would renounce the French alliance and embrace that of England, to give his daughter and heiress, the Lady Mary, in marriage to the young king, an expedient which would forever unite the two kingdoms; but the arguments of the French party being seconded by the prejudices of the people, prevailed, and Henry's offers were not accepted.

Henry was a party to the conspiracy of Charles, Duke of Bourbon, Constable of France, against Francis I., and on August 24, 1524, an English army, commanded by the Duke of Suffolk, landed at Calais, and being joined by about fifteen thousand Flemings, under the Count de Buren, prepared to invade France, and from this conspiracy he expected to become as powerful in that country as Henry V. had been; but the failure of the plot utterly ruined the Duke of Bourbon, and the English army met with as little success as the previous one under the Earl of Surrey.

The death of Adrian VI. this year, and the election of Clement VII. by the concurrence of the imperial party determined Wolsey to withdraw Henry from that alliance, and pave the way for an union between his master and the French king, but he was not able to accomplish his purpose until after the

battle of Pavia, February 24, 1525. The French monarch having been taken prisoner at that battle by the imperial army, Henry concluded an alliance with the Regent of France on August 30, 1525, in which the regent acknowledged the kingdom of France Henry's debtor for one million eight hundred thousand crowns, to be discharged in half-yearly payments of fifty thousand crowns, after which Henry was to receive a yearly pension of one hundred thousand crowns for life. He engaged to procure the liberty of her son, the king, on reasonable conditions. On January 14, 1526, the treaty of Madrid was signed, stipulating for Francis's deliverance in six weeks on the performance of certain terms, all of which was extremely severe upon the captive monarch, who was liberated and entered his dominions on March 18, 1526.

In the year 1527, Bourbon, who commanded the Imperialists in Italy, finding it difficult to support his army, determined to lead it to Rome, which he took by storm, but was himself slain in the attack.

Pope Clement was taken captive, and the city was exposed to all the violence and brutality of a licentious soldiery. The sacking of Rome and the captivity of the Pope caused general indignation among all the Catholics of Europe. A new treaty was concluded between Henry and Francis, with a view of expelling the Imperialists from Italy, and restoring the Pope to liberty. Henry agreed finally to renounce all claims to the crown of France; claims which might now be deemed chimerical, but which often served as a pretence for exciting the unwary English to wage war on the French nation.

As a return for this concession, Francis bound himself and his successors to pay forever fifty thousand crowns a year to Henry and his successors, and that greater solemnity might be given to this treaty, it was agreed that the parliaments and great nobility of both kingdoms should give their assent to it.

From this time the question of Henry's divorce became the leading incident of his reign. His marriage with Catherine had not been productive of heirs. During the first nine years of their union, the queen had thrice miscarried, two sons had died immediately after birth, and a third still-born; the only

child that lived was the Princess Mary, now eleven years old. Henry, who was superstitious even to fanaticism, was much oppressed by these repeated misfortunes, and believed they were punishments for having married his brother's widow. The idea of divorce no doubt had been maturing in his mind for years, when accident gave it sudden prominence.

The states of Castile had opposed the Emperor Charles's espousals with Lady Mary, Henry's daughter, and among other objections had insisted on her illegitimate birth, and when the marriage of that princess with a French prince was spoken of as probable, her legitimacy was questioned by the French envoy, the Bishop of Tarbes. This the king asserted in council as his reasons, but there were other causes which no doubt had a greater influence over him.

The queen was over five years his senior, and the loss of her beauty, together with particular infirmities, and female diseases, had contributed, notwithstanding her blameless character, to render her person unacceptable to him.

The succession to the crown was another consideration that occurred to every one, whenever the lawfulness of Henry's marriage was called in question, and it was well understood, that if doubts of Mary's legitimacy concurred with the weakness of her sex, the King of Scotland, the next heir, would advance his pretensions, and might throw the kingdom into confusion. The recent convulsions arising from disputed titles made great impressions on men's minds, and made them desirous of any event which might obviate such a calamity.

The king was thus impelled, both by his private passions and motives of public interest, to seek the dissolution of his (as it was esteemed) unlawful marriage with Catherine.

Anne Boleyn, who lately appeared at court, had been appointed maid of honor to the queen, and having had frequent opportunities of being seen by Henry, and conversing with him, she had acquired an entire ascendancy over his affections. This young lady was daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, who had been employed by the king on several embassies, and was allied to the Duke of Norfolk, and most of the principal nobility of the kingdom. Anne had attended the king's sister to France, when

the latter married Louis XII., and on the death of that monarch and return of the dowager to England, was retained in her service because of her many accomplishments. Henry, finding that her virtue and modesty prevented all hopes of gratifying his passion in any other manner, determined to raise her to the throne.

At this time the Pope was under the power of the Imperialists, and soon became a prisoner of the emperor. Wolsey determined to procure a divorce for the king, in the hope of binding Henry to the cause of the ancient church, which was beginning to feel the attack of the Reformers.

Apart from the theological reasons which deterred the Pope from granting the divorce, he had to dread the resentment of the Emperor Charles, who was Catherine's nephew, but, importuned by the English ministers, he at last put into their hands a commission to Wolsey as legate, in conjunction with the Archbishop of Canterbury, to examine the validity of the king's marriage, and of Pope Julius's dispensation; he also granted them a provisional dispensation for the king's marriage with any other person, and promised to issue a decreed bull annulling the marriage with Catherine, but represented to them the dangerous position in which he stood with the emperor, and charged them not to publish this commission, or make any use of it, until his affairs were such as to assure his liberty and independence.

When Henry received the commission and dispensation from his ambassadors, and was informed of the Pope's instructions, he laid the whole matter before his ministers, and asked their advice in so delicate a situation. They immediately saw the danger of proceeding in the manner pointed out to them. Should the Pope refuse to ratify a deed which he might justly call precipitate and irregular, and should he disavow the advice which he gave in so clandestine a manner, the king would find the second marriage totally invalidated, the children which it might bring him declared illegitimate, and his marriage with Catherine more firmly riveted than ever.

It was impossible that the Pope should continue to be the open enemy of the emperor, and, unless he should so continue his aid in the divorce question could not be counted on.

At this crisis, when it was seen that the Pope dared not grant the divorce, Thomas Cranmer, a member of Jesus College, Cambridge, suggested that the universities should be applied to, to answer the question: "Do the laws of God allow a man to marry his brother's widow?" This entirely suited Henry's humor, and Cranmer was summoned to court, and employed with others, both lawyers and divines, to write in favor of the divorce; and a secret agent was sent out to the different foreign universities.

The Emperor Charles being ruler of Flanders, an alliance with him was popular in England, from the fact of a large business being carried on between both countries. The emperor himself was popular with the Reformers, because he was at war with the Pope; with the conservatives because they knew his position necessarily made him the champion of the old order of things, though circumstances, for the time, made him their apparent enemy; and generally because he was the enemy of France, England's old rival. Wolsey triumphed over all these obstacles, by convincing Henry that, by a change of foreign policy, he could cause the Pope to grant the divorce he so much desired, and in his correspondence with the English agent at Rome, he declared that the king would disregard the wishes of his subjects and the private interest of his realm, to attach himself cordially and constantly to the Holy See, provided the Pope should prove his friend in the matter he had so much at heart.

That Henry was in part governed by religious feelings, and also by the considerations growing out of the subject of succession, cannot reasonably be doubted, but his attachment to Anne Boleyn was the real cause for his wish to put away his wife.

The Pope now for years had played a double game, though warned by Wolsey and others of the evils that must follow to Rome from his failure to please Henry, who, at last convinced that only bold measures would answer, avowed his intention to make Anne Boleyn his wife. Henry sent a relation of that lady to Rome to announce to the Pope that his request must be granted, menacing, that if he failed the whole matter would be laid before Parliament.

The emperor sought to intimidate Henry, who summoned a meeting of the nobles, merchants, and others in London, before whom he placed the reasons for his conduct, and appealed to the patriotism of his subjects with success.

The imperial threats and intrigues proved very injurious to the queen's cause. Catherine now appealed to Rome, May, 1529, to which Henry was summoned. Against this Wolsey protested, declaring that if Henry should go to that court it would be with such a force as should be formidable to the Pope and all Italy.

A parliament was immediately called and power passed into the hands of new men, though of the old aristocracy and Wolsey's enemies, and opposed to the rule of the Church, yet not Reformers in every case. At this time there were three parties in the country, the English party, in whose hands was power, and who were determined on a secular revolt; the papal party, the chief member of which was Sir Thomas More, now Chancellor; and the doctrinal Protestants, who were disliked by both the others.

Wolsey opened the Court of Chancery with even more than his usual pomp, at the beginning of Michaelmas Term, 1529, and on the same day the king's attorney preferred an indictment against him, charging him with receiving bulls from Rome and holding his court as legate within the realm, an offence against a statute of Richard II., for which he was liable to forfeiture of goods and imprisonment. Though it was notorious that what he had done was by the king's direct command, judgment was given against him, and on October 17, 1529, the great seal was taken from him and he was banished from court. Anne Boleyn extorted a promise from her royal lover that he should see Wolsey no more. The utter ruin of the discarded minister was necessary for the success of the new policy. Pardon was granted him on the surrender of his vast possessions to the crown, and he was ordered to proceed at once to his bishopric of York, the only dignity he was allowed to retain. But hardly a year had passed before his popularity in the North revived the jealousy of his political rivals, and on the eve of his installation feast he was arrested on the charge of high treason, and conducted by

the lieutenant of the Tower toward London. An attack of dysentery forced him to rest at the Abbey of Leicester, and on his entrance he said to the brother who met him, "I have come to lay my bones among you." On his deathbed he said, "If I had served my God as faithfully as I have served my king, he would not have deserted me in my old age."

Parliament met on November 3, 1529. The fact that the opening speech was made by Sir Thomas More, an extreme Catholic, standing at the king's right hand, shows that Henry had even then no wish to break with Rome. Parliament was left to pursue its own course, and it proceeded to denounce the clergy in a formal act of accusation or petition, which contained the germ of the English Reformation. Henry submitted this to the bishops, who protested, but ineffectually, as the Commons passed several laws respecting the powers and privileges of the clerical order, and the Lords concurred, though the clergy formed a large portion of the Upper House, which shows that the pressure was great from without.

The divorce question continued under discussion, and the Pope issued two inhibitions, threatening Henry with spiritual censures if he should proceed. The king thought at one time of giving way, and most of the Council agreed with him, but Thomas Cromwell induced him to persevere. Henry thought the action of Parliament would intimidate the Papal Court.

The right of the Pope to grant that dispensation under which the marriage to Henry and Catherine had taken place was now called in question, the object of which was to transfer the question to a broader court and there get a decision against that marriage. This is said to have been suggested by Crammer, who made himself prominent in obtaining the opinions of universities and learned men on the subject, and who belonged to the embassy of the Earl of Wiltshire, sent to the emperor at Bologna in 1530. This embassy failed to move Charles.

The Pope still affected impartiality and allowed free expression of opinion in Italy on the marriage, but his sole object was delay, and Spanish influence was exerted in the queen's interest.

In France and England Henry's cause triumphed, because all the influence of both governments were used in its behalf. On

January 16, 1531, a new Parliament was held, together with a convocation, and the king here gave strong proofs of his extensive authority. An ancient statute, then almost obsolete, which had been employed to ruin Wolsey, was now turned against the higher clergy, but less in the spirit of justice than to obtain an opportunity to strip them of some of their property.

The clergy were now compelled to acknowledge Henry as protector and the only supreme head of the church. In this year, 1531, the divorce question was first brought before Parliament, when the opinions of the universities were communicated to it. The House of Peers sent a remonstrating letter to the Pope warning him of what would follow if a divorce should not be granted. Catherine was asked if she would withdraw her appeal to Rome, and on her firm refusal was removed from court. In 1532 Parliament proceeded in the work of clerical reform, taking its first step toward a breach with Rome. From this time dates the Anglican schism. The convocation praying to the king: "May it please your Highness to ordain, in the present Parliament, that the obedience of your Highness, and of the people, be withdrawn from the See of Rome," that is, if the Pope should insist upon the payment of annates. But this did not prevent Parliament from limiting the legislative power of the convocation in spite of the clergy's opposition. Sir Thomas More immediately afterward resigned the chancellorship, and Archbishop Warham, after protesting against the doings of Parliament, soon after died.

An offensive and defensive alliance between Francis and Henry was formed, 1532; the former agreed to send fifteen thousand troops to England should the emperor invade that country, and he assisted Henry in various ways. Scotland gave England great trouble at this time.

The English court visited that of France, at Boulogne, whither Anne Boleyn accompanied the king. She was received by Francis as a queen, and he advised Henry to marry her on his return, which he did. The ceremony was performed by the Bishop of Coventry on November 14, 1532, Anne having previously been created Marchioness of Pembroke.

A papal brief soon appeared excommunicating Henry and

Anne unless they should avoid all intercourse pending the decision of the divorce.

Parliament met on April 12, 1533, passed the act of appeals directed against the papal authority, and intended to bear against Catherine's appeal to Rome.

On May 10, 1533, Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, opened court at Ampthill, near the residence of Queen Catherine, to examine into the validity of the marriage. The evidence of Prince Arthur's consummation of his marriage was produced, the opinions of the universities were read, together with judgments pronounced two years previously, after which Cranmer pronounced sentence, and annulled Henry's marriage with Catherine as unlawful and invalid, and by a subsequent sentence he ratified the marriage with Anne Boleyn, who, a few days after was publicly crowned queen, with all the pomp suitable to the ceremony, and on September 7th she was safely delivered of a daughter, named Elizabeth. Henry was so delighted with the birth of this child that he conferred upon her the title of the Princess of Wales.

Parliament met on November 3, 1534, and conferred on the king the title of the only supreme head on earth of the Church of England, and completed the union of England and Wales, by giving to that principality all the benefit of the English laws.

Conspiracies against the king were formed, implicating both Catherine and Mary, and the throne was in great danger, from the ambition of some parties and the fanaticism of others.

No prince in Europe was possessed of such absolute authority as Henry, not even the Pope himself, in his own capital, where he united both the civil and ecclesiastical powers.

The spirit of heresy still appeared detestable as well as formidable to Henry, and while his resentment against the See of Rome had corrected one considerable part of his early prejudice, he had made it a point of honor never to relinquish the remainder. Separated as he was from the Catholic Church and Roman Pontiff, he still charged himself with maintaining the Catholic doctrine, and with guarding, by fire and sword, the imagined purity of his speculative principles. His minis-

ters and courtiers were of as motley a character as his conduct, and seemed to waver during his whole reign between the ancient and the new religion.

The queen, by interest as well as inclination, favored the Reformers. Cromwell, who had been created Secretary of State, had embraced the same views, and Crammer had secretly adopted the Protestant tenets, while the Duke of Norfolk adhered to the ancient faith, and Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, belonged to the same party.

The ambiguity of the king's conduct, though it kept the courtiers in awe, served in the main to encourage the Protestants.

John Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, was imprisoned in 1535, for refusing the oath regarding the succession, on which the Pope created him cardinal, as a recompense for his faithful services to the Roman court, which so roused the indignation of Henry that he had him tried and found guilty of denying the king's supremacy, and he was executed June 22, 1535, for which Henry was cited to appear at Rome within ninety days, to answer, and on Henry's failing to appear, the Pope excommunicated him on August 30th, deprived him of his crown, laid the kingdom under interdict, declared his issue by Anne Boleyn illegitimate, dissolved all leagues with any Catholic princes, gave his kingdom to an invader, and commanded the nobility to take arms against him.

Henry knew that he might expect any injury from Charles that it was in his power to inflict; he therefore renewed his friendship with Francis, and these two monarchs made advances to the princes of the Protestant leagues in Germany.

During these negotiations an incident happened which seemed to open a way for a reconciliation between Charles and Henry. Queen Catherine died at Kimbolton on July 6, 1536, after a lingering illness, in the fiftieth year of her age.

The emperor, believing the death of his aunt had removed all cause of quarrel, made overtures to Henry, but they were such as could not be accepted by that prince.

Convocation had now passed a vote by a large majority for publishing a new translation of the Scriptures, which greatly

pleased the Reformers, and while they were exulting in their success they met with a mortification which seemed to blast all their hopes. Their patroness, Anne Boleyn, no longer possessed the king's favor. Henry had preserved his love for this lady during the six years that his prosecution of the divorce lasted, and the more obstacles he met with the more was he determined on pursuing his purpose; but the affection which had subsisted and increased, under difficulties, became satiated when he attained secure possession of his object; it then languished, and his heart became estranged from his wife. Anne's enemies soon perceived the fatal change, and they were ready to widen the breach.

She had been lately delivered of a dead son, and Henry's extreme fondness for male issue being thus far disappointed, his temper equally violent and superstitious, was disposed to make the innocent mother answerable for the misfortune.

But the chief means her enemies employed to inflame the king against her was his jealousy. Anne, though entirely innocent, and even virtuous in her conduct, had a certain gaiety, if not levity, of character, which made her less circumspect than her position required. Her education in France made her more liable to those freedoms, and it was with difficulty she conformed to the strict ceremonial of the English court. Henry's dignity was sometimes offended with her popular manners, and his mind was soon poisoned by her artful enemies. The Viscountess Rocheford, wife to the queen's brother, but who lived on bad terms with her sister-in-law, insinuated the most cruel suspicions into the king's mind, and as she was a woman of profligate character, she paid little regard to truth in the calumnies. She pretended that her own husband was engaged in a criminal correspondence with his sister, and otherwise poisoned the king's mind. His jealousy now laid hold of the slightest circumstances, and finding no particular object, vented his rage on every one who came within the range of his fury.

His love was now transferred to Jane, daughter of Sir John Seymour, a maid of honor to the queen—a young lady of great beauty and attractions, who had now entire ascendancy over

him, and he was determined to sacrifice everything to the gratification of this new passion, and was willing to listen to any imputation of guilt against the unfortunate Anne; and, from a slight circumstance which happened at a tournament at Greenwich, he had her sent to the Tower, May 2, 1536. A few days afterward, she, with her brother, Lord Rocheford, were tried by a jury of peers for incest, found guilty, and on May 19th beheaded, she declaring her innocence. The following day Henry married Jane Seymour; his impatience to gratify this new passion caused him to forget all regard to decency.

Henry, not satisfied with this cruel vengeance, annulled his marriage with Anne Boleyn and declared her issue illegitimate, and the succession to the crown settled on his issue by Jane Seymour, or any subsequent wife; and if he died without children, he was empowered by his will or letters patent to dispose of the crown as he saw fit, all of which was ratified by Parliament June 8, 1536.

On October 12, 1537, the queen was delivered of a son, who was baptized by the name of Edward. The queen died two days after, but the king's affliction was drowned by the birth of an heir. On the 18th of the same month the young prince was created Prince of Wales, Duke of Cornwall, and Earl of Chester.

In 1538, the final dissolution of the monasteries took place, and the articles forming the new church in England was passed, establishing the doctrine of the real presence, forbidding the marriage of priests, the utility of private masses, and providing for the continuance of the confessional, and to extirpate from the kingdom all diversities of opinion in matters of religion.

Henry, now anxious to form another matrimonial alliance, cast his eyes over the different courts of Europe, and, through the advice of Cromwell, turned his thoughts on a German Protestant princess—Anne, daughter of the Duke of Cleves. A flattering picture of the princess determined Henry to propose to her father for her hand, and, after some opposition, negotiations were at last concluded, and Anne was sent over to England. The king, impatient to be satisfied with the appearance of his intended bride, came privately to Rochester, and got sight of her. He found her large and tall, but utterly des-

titute of grace and beauty, and very unlike the picture. He swore she was a great Flanders mare, and that he never could bear her any affection ; and, what was worse, he found she could speak no language but Dutch, of which he was entirely ignorant.

But, notwithstanding his dislike, he was advised, for motives of policy, to consummate the marriage, and it was celebrated on January 6, 1540.

The king, becoming more disgusted with his wife after the marriage, determined to procure a divorce, on the ground that she had formerly been contracted in marriage by her father to the Duke of Lorraine, although they were both under age at the time, and the contract afterward annulled by consent of both parties. On July 28th, Henry procured the divorce from Parliament, and on August 8, 1540, he married Catharine Howard, a niece of the Duke of Norfolk, who now ruled the king's councils. The turn which Henry had taken with regard to foreign affairs was extremely agreeable to his Catholic subjects, and they, being in the ascendant, contributed to the ruin of Cromwell and his execution, and a general persecution of the Protestants ; nor did he spare the Catholics who denied his supremacy.

A rebellion broke out in Yorkshire in 1541, headed by Sir John Neville, but it was soon suppressed and the leaders executed. They were supposed to have been instigated by the intrigues of Cardinal Reginald Pole, and as he was beyond reach, Henry seized upon his brothers, and even his aged mother, the Countess of Salisbury, and had them executed because they had corresponded with him.

Henry had thought himself very happy in his new marriage. The agreeable manners of the queen had entirely captivated his affections, and he made no secret of his attachment to her. But Catherine's conduct little merited this tenderness. One Lascelles gave information to Archbishop Crammer of her dissolute life, and he, after taking advice of the other members of the council, conveyed it in writing to the king.

The information stated that two servants of the Duchess-Dowager of Norfolk, with whom Catherine had been educated, named Derham and Mannoc, had been admitted to her bed ;

and also evidence of one Colepeper to the same privilege, since her marriage; and that the Lady Rocheford, the chief instrument in bringing Anne Boleyn to the block, was the queen's accomplice in most of her amours.

The king at first could not believe the charge, but at once determined to sift it to the bottom. He found the evidence so convincing that he summoned Parliament to take immediate action, and on January 6, 1542, Catherine was brought before that body.

She at first denied her guilt, but being informed that a full discovery had been made, confessed. She was found guilty, and, together with the Viscountess Rocheford, beheaded on Tower Hill.

The same year a war broke out between England and Scotland, which soon ended in a disgraceful defeat of the latter, and the king, James V., died shortly afterward. At the same time his queen was delivered of a daughter, who afterward ascended the throne as Mary Queen of Scots. Henry and the Emperor Charles again formed an alliance, but, owing to French intrigue in Scotland, he made war with France, and Charles, in violation of his word, made peace with the latter country, while England continued the war until 1546.

On July 12, 1543, Henry married his sixth and last wife, Catherine Parr, widow of Nevil, Lord Latimer, a woman of virtue and somewhat inclined to the Reformers. She was more successful than his other wives in retaining his favor. He suffered much from illness in the latter part of his life, and she faithfully attended him.

Henry, though now old and unwieldy, again crossed the sea, and captured Boulogne, 1544, and a great number of Scottish nobles fell into his hands, who were set free on condition of advocating a marriage between his son Edward and the infant daughter of his late nephew, James V. The treaty was agreed to, and stipulated that the queen should remain in Scotland until her tenth year, and then she was to be sent to England to be educated; and that the kingdom, notwithstanding its union with England, should still retain its laws and privileges. But it was never carried out.

Henry's parliaments had ever been most discreditably subservient to him, the fact being that a large number of the commons were his servants, or named by him. Three times did they relieve him of his debts; three several times did they alter the succession to the throne, and make it treason to cast a doubt on any of his marriages beyond the first. They allowed his proclamations to have the force of law, and finally they surrendered the last shadow of independence by permitting him actually to dispose of his dominions by will as freely as any gentleman might dispose of a private estate. He acted upon this, and named his son as his successor; but also enabled his two daughters, Mary and Elizabeth, to inherit the crown, though, by his own wish, they had both been declared illegitimate, and the mother of one had died of a broken heart, and the other had perished on the scaffold.

But the last act of his life was one of the worst. No one had rendered him greater services than the Duke of Norfolk; yet he, too, was marked out for destruction, and only Henry's death saved him from the block.

Henry, like his father, when his end drew near, relinquished a small part of the spoil, and devoted it to purposes of charity. Thus he bestowed on the citizens of London the original endowment of St. Bartholomew's, St. Thomas's, and Bethlehem Hospitals, all monastic property, that had cost him nothing.

No considerations of justice, honor, or charity seem ever to have had power to turn him away from any course that he proposed to himself, and the utter subserviency of his parliaments and his judges enabled him to become as absolute and as cruel a tyrant as ever afflicted a nation.

Henry made a will a month before his death, in which he left the crown, first to Prince Edward, then to Lady Mary, and next to the Lady Elizabeth. He died on January 28, 1547, in the fifty-fifth year of his age and the thirty-eighth of his reign, and was succeeded by his only son Edward.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: James IV., James V., Mary; France: Louis XII., Francis I.; Emperors of the West, Maximilian, Charles V.

Edward VI.—A.D. 1547-1553.

Born at Hampton Court, October 12, 1537.

Crowned, February 25, 1547.

Died at Greenwich Palace, July 6, 1553 ; was buried at Westminster.

Unmarried.

EDWARD, the only living son of Henry VIII. and Jane Seymour, his third queen, was born in the Palace of Greenwich on October 12, 1537. He was little cared for by the three step-mothers he had in quick succession, but at the age of six years was entrusted to the learned tutors, Anthony Cooke and John Cheke, and he made great progress in divinity, philosophy, Greek, and Latin.

Henry, in his will, fixed the majority of the prince at eighteen years, and appointed sixteen executors, to whom, during the minority, he entrusted the government of the kingdom, who at their first meeting determined to depart from the wishes of the late king, as it was feared the government would lose its dignity for want of some head who might represent the royal majesty, who might receive ambassadors, addresses, etc., and whose name might be used in proclamations and orders.

They therefore bestowed upon Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset, the title of Governor of his Majesty, lord protector of his realm, and lieutenant-general of all his armies.

Sir Thomas Seymour, brother of the duke, was created Lord Seymour of Sudley, and appointed lord high admiral.

The government was almost entirely Protestant, and its first object was to complete the religious revolution and establish a church independent of the See of Rome.

Somerset, to increase his power, declared that the vote of the executors, choosing him Protector, was not sufficient foundation for his authority. He procured a patent from the young king, by which he entirely overturned the will of Henry VIII., produced a total revolution in the government, and seems even to have subverted all the laws of the kingdom. He named himself Protector, with full regal power, and appointed a council consisting of all the executors of the king's will, except the Earl of Southampton ; he reserved the power of naming any other

conceillers at pleasure, and bound himself to consult only those he thought proper.

The Protector had long been regarded as a secret partisan of the Reformers, and being now freed from restraint, he feared not to show his intentions of correcting all abuses in the ancient religion, and of adopting still more of the Protestant innovations. He took care that all those persons entrusted with the young king's education should be attached to the same principles, and as Edward showed a zeal for every kind of literature, especially theological, far beyond his years, all men foresaw, in the course of his reign, the total abolition of the Catholic faith in England, and they early began to declare themselves in favor of those tenets which were likely to become, in the end, entirely prevalent.

As soon as affairs were arranged as to the settlement of the government in England, the Protector made preparations for the invasion of Scotland, to execute, if possible, the project of uniting the two kingdoms by marriage, on which the late king had been so intent, and which he had recommended to his executors with his dying breath. He levied an army of eighteen thousand men, and equipped a fleet of sixty sail, one-half of which were ships of war, and the other laden with provisions and ammunition. He also published a manifesto, in which he stated all the arguments for a union of the two countries; but he soon found that all his arguments would be in vain, for the queen-dowager's attachment to France and the Roman Catholic religion would render ineffectual all negotiations for the intended marriage. He found himself obliged to try the force of arms. He therefore crossed the borders, and on September 15, 1547, fought the battle of Pinkie, completely defeating the Scotch army, under the Earls of Angus, Arran, and Huntley, the Scotch losing ten thousand killed and two thousand prisoners. The regent and queen-dowager fled to Stirling Castle. On the Protector's return to London he called a parliament, November 4, 1547, by which his own power was confirmed and extended, the statutes of the Six Articles repealed, prisoners under it were released, and exiles were recalled. Preaching, which had been rare in Catholic times, was enforced, the statutes of Richard II.

and Henry IV. against the Lollards were repealed, with all the acts in matters of religion passed under Henry VIII., except those directed against the papal supremacy.

By order in council, images which Luther had tolerated as aids to devotion, and of which Crammer vindicated a moderate use, were ordered to be removed, that candles should no longer be carried about on Candlemas Day, ashes on Ash-Wednesday, or palms on Palm Sunday.

The uniformity of public worship was established, and all ministers were enjoined to use only the Book of Common Prayer. The English Bible, with Erasmus's commentary on the gospels, was placed in every church for the use of the people. The English clergy were emancipated from celibacy, though it was recommended to them to live separate from the bond of marriage, for their own estimation, and that they may attend solely to the administration of the gospel.

Lord Seymour was a man of insatiable ambition, and though thought to possess superior capacity to the Protector, did not enjoy the confidence of the people. By his flattery and address he had so insinuated himself into the good graces of the queen-dowager that, soon after the king's death, she married him, and not many months after died in childbirth; he then paid his addresses to Lady Elizabeth, then in her sixteenth year, but as Henry VIII. had excluded his daughters from all hopes of succession if they married without the consent of the Council, which Seymour could never hope to obtain, it was now said he meant to effect his purpose by expedients still more rash and criminal, and having been discovered in a conspiracy against his brother, the Protector, and to get possession of the king's person, he was tried for treason, found guilty, and executed, March 20, 1549.

The King of France, taking advantage of the distractions in England, made an attempt to recover Boulogne and the territory which Henry VIII. had conquered from France, on which the Protector endeavored to fortify himself with the alliance of the emperor, and he sent over Secretary Paget to Brussels, where Charles then kept his court, to assist the English ambassador in the negotiation. But that prince thought it unsuitable to enter

into confederacy with a nation which had broken off all connection with the Church of Rome, declined the advances, and denied the applications of the ambassadors. Somerset, disappointed in his assistance, was inclined to conclude a peace with France and Scotland, as he was not in a condition to maintain such ruinous wars, particularly as he thought there no longer remained any object of hostility. The Scots had sent away their queen to France, and she was now betrothed to the dauphin, and could not complete the marriage contract with Edward; and as Henry VIII. had stipulated to restore Boulogne in 1554, it seemed a matter of small moment to anticipate, by a few years, the execution of the treaty; but when he proposed these reasons to the council, he met with strong opposition from his enemies, who seeing him unable to support the war, were determined for that very reason to oppose all proposals for peace.

Factions now ran high at court, and matters were drawing to an issue fatal to the authority of the Protector.

The Catholic party, who retained their influence with the lower orders, were his declared enemies, and took advantage of every opportunity to decry his conduct. The attainder and execution of his brother had an odious aspect; the introduction of German troops into the kingdom was represented in the worst colors; the great estates which he had suddenly acquired of the church, and of the crown, rendered him obnoxious; and the palace he was building in the Strand, served by its magnificence, and still more by other circumstances which attended it, to expose him to the censure of the public.

All these imprudences were remarked by Somerset's enemies, who resolved to take advantage of them, and on October 6, 1549, a conspiracy was formed against him, led by Dudley, Earl of Warwick, Lord St. John, the Earls of Southampton and Arundel, with five other members of the council. They met at Ely House, and took upon themselves the whole power of the government, and began to act independently of the Protector, whom they represented as the author of every public grievance and disorder. They wrote letters to the chief nobility and gentry in England, informing them of their measures, and asking for

their assistance; they sent for the mayor and aldermen of London, and directed them to obey their orders, and laid the same instructions on the lieutenant of the Tower. The next day the chancellor and other high officers of the state joined the malcontent councillors. As soon as the Protector heard of their defection he removed the king from Hampton Court Palace to Windsor Castle, and arming his friends and servants seemed resolute to defend himself against all his enemies. But finding that no man of rank, except Crammer and Paget, adhered to him; that the people did not rise; that the city and Tower had declared against him, he lost all hopes of success, and applied to his enemies for pardon and forgiveness.

Somerset was sent to the Tower, confessed on his knees to the council all the charges made against him, which he imputed to his folly and indiscretion rather than to any malignity of intention. He was deprived of all his offices, fined £2,000 a year, and the prosecution was carried no further against him, and after a short time he was liberated.

The council of regency found themselves involved in the same difficulties that embarrassed the Protector.

The wars with France and Scotland could not be prosecuted, and it was now acknowledged that there could be no object in their continuance, and agents were sent over to France, with full powers, to negotiate. The French king absolutely refused to pay the two million crowns, which his predecessor had acknowledged to be due to the crown of England, and said he never would consent to render himself tributary to any prince, but he offered a sum for the immediate restitution of Boulogne, and four hundred thousand crowns were at last agreed on; Scotland was included in the treaty. No sooner was peace concluded with France, than a close alliance was formed, and an agreement of marriage was come to between Edward and Elizabeth, the daughter of the French king. The intention of marrying the king to a daughter of Henry II., a violent persecutor of the Protestants, was not acceptable to that party in England, but in all other respects the council was steady in supporting the Reformation, and in enforcing the laws against the Romanists.

Several prelates were still attached to that communion, and though they made some concessions, in order to save their bishoprics, they delayed, as much as they could, the execution of the new laws, and gave countenance to such incumbents as were negligent or refractory. A resolution was passed to depose those prelates, and the execution was easy, as they held their commissions during the king's pleasure. It was thought proper to begin with Gardiner, in order to strike terror into the rest. The method of proceeding against him was violent, and had scarcely any color of law or justice.

Instructions had been given to him to embody, in a sermon, the duty of obedience to a king, even during his minority, and because he had neglected this order he was thrown into prison and there detained for two years, without being accused of any crime except disobedience to this arbitrary command; he was subsequently tried, deprived of his bishopric, and kept in close custody. Other bishops were deposed in like manner.

An order was next issued by the council for purging all libraries of missals, legends, and other superstitious volumes, and rare books and manuscripts were destroyed without distinction. Volumes of divinity suffered for their rich binding; those of literature were condemned as useless; those of geometry and astronomy as supposed to be nothing but necromancy. The University had no power to stop these barbarous violences, and feared every moment to be swallowed up by the Earl of Warwick and his associates.

Though every one yielded to the authority of the council, the Lady Mary could never be brought to compliance, and she still continued to hear mass, and rejected the new liturgy, and declared herself willing to endure death rather than relinquish her religion. The emperor remonstrated in her behalf, and even threatened hostilities, if liberty of conscience were refused her. But though the council, sensible that the kingdom was in no condition to support with honor such a war, was desirous to comply, they found great difficulty to overcome the scruples of the young king, who had been educated with such violent abhorrence for the mass and other popish rites, which he considered impious and idolatrous. He thought he should participate in

the sin if he allowed its continuance. When at last Cranmer, Ridley, and Poinet prevailed somewhat over his opposition, he burst into tears, lamenting his sister's obstinacy, and bewailing his own hard fate that he must suffer her to continue in such an abominable mode of worship.

The Earl of Warwick, not contented with the station he had attained, carried his pretensions still higher. He gained many partisans who were ready and willing to second him in every enterprise. The last Earl of Northumberland died without issue, and Sir Thomas Percy, his brother, had been attainted; the title was therefore extinct and the estates vested in the crown. Warwick procured to himself a grant of those splendid possessions, and induced the king to create him Duke of Northumberland, which was only another step toward his great ambition. Finding that the Duke of Somerset, though degraded from office and even lessened in public opinion, still enjoyed some share of popularity, he determined to ruin the man whom he now regarded as the chief obstacle to the attainment of his hopes. He therefore secretly gained many of the friends and servants of that unhappy nobleman to his side, who reported every word and expression made use of by the duke, which he used to his own purpose, and on October 16, 1551, Somerset, together with members of his family and other friends, were seized and thrown into the Tower. He was accused of having formed a design to raise an insurrection in the north, to seize the Tower and raise a rebellion in London, and that he had once laid a scheme of murdering the Duke of Northumberland, the Earls of Northampton and Pembroke.

He was brought to trial; twenty-seven peers composed the jury, of whom the three he was charged to have intended murdering formed part. He was accused of high treason on account of the rebellion and acquitted, no witnesses being examined in court. He acknowledged that he had expressed his intention of murdering the three noblemen, but had not formed any resolution on that head; he was brought in guilty of felony and condemned to death.

Care was taken by Northumberland's emissaries to poison the young king's mind against his uncle, lest he should relent and

pardon him; no access was given to any of Somerset's friends, and by a series of occupations and amusements the king was kept from reflecting on the sentence, and on January 22, 1552, Somerset was beheaded on Tower Hill, surrounded by thousands who to the last moment hoped for his pardon.

A new parliament was called on March 1, 1553. Edward was now in feeble health, and Northumberland represented to that prince that his two half-sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, had both of them been declared illegitimate by act of Parliament, and though Henry, by his will, had restored them to a place in the succession, the nation would never submit to see the throne of England filled by a bastard; they were his sisters by half blood only, and even if they were legitimate could not enjoy the crown as his heirs and successors.

That Mary Queen of Scots stood excluded by the late king's will, and being an alien, had lost by law all right of inheriting; not to mention that she was betrothed to the Dauphin of France, she would, by her succession, render England, as she had already done Scotland, a province of France. That the certain consequence of his sister Mary's succession, or that of the Queen of Scots, would be the abolition of the Protestant religion and the repeal of the laws of the Reformation and the usurpation of the Roman Catholic religion and idolatry of the Church of Rome; and fortunately for England, after these three princesses were excluded by such good reasons, the succession devolved on the Marchioness of Dorset, elder daughter of the Princess Mary, sister of the late king, and the Duke of Suffolk; that the next heir to the marchioness was the Lady Jane Gray, a lady of the most amiable character, accomplished in literature and religion, and there was no reason why the king should not exercise the same power which his father enjoyed, and leave her the crown by letters patent. These reasonings made impressions on the young king, particularly as he feared the consequences should a bigoted Catholic like his sister Mary succeed to the throne.

Northumberland next fortified himself by causing the Marquis of Dorset to be created Duke of Suffolk, that title being extinct, and persuading the new duke and duchess to give their

daughter, the Lady Jane Gray, in marriage to his fourth son, the Lord Guilford Dudley.

Edward had been seized the previous year with measles, then with small-pox, but having perfectly recovered, the nation entertained hopes that these diseases would serve to confirm his health. He had subsequently made a journey through a part of his kingdom, and was afterward seized with a cough, which proved obstinate. The general attachment to the young king, joined to the hatred borne the Dudleys, made it remarked that Edward had declined in health from the moment that Lord Robert Dudley had been put near him in the quality of Gentleman of the Bed-chamber.

The failing state of Edward's health made Northumberland the more intent on the execution of his project. He removed all but his own emissaries from about the king, and, by all his artifices, prevailed upon the young prince to give his final consent to the projected settlement. The leading judges and ministers were summoned, and, after protesting, at last yielded to the earnest solicitation of the king. Letters patent were granted, the two princesses, Mary and Elizabeth, were set aside, and the crown was settled on the heirs of the Duchess of Suffolk. After the settlement was made, Edward visibly declined every day, and on July 6, 1553, he expired at Greenwich Palace, in the sixteenth year of his age and sixth of his reign.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—Scotland: Mary; France: Francis I., Henry II.; Emperor of the West: Charles V. (Charles V. of Spain).

Lady Jane Gray.

NORTHUMBERLAND, sensible of the opposition which he must expect, had carefully concealed the conveyance of the crown made by Edward, and in order to bring the two princesses into his power, he took the precaution to require the council, before the king's death, to write to them in his name, desiring their attendance, on pretence that his infirm state of health required the assistance of their counsel and the consolation of their company. Edward expired before their arrival, but Northumberland, in order to make the princesses fall into the snare, kept

the king's death secret, and the Lady Mary had reached Hoddesdon, within half a day's journey of the court, when the Earl of Arundel sent her private intelligence both of her brother's death and of the conspiracy formed against her. She immediately retired by quick journeys to Kenninghall, in Norfolk; then to Framlingham, in Suffolk, where she purposed to embark for Flanders in case she should find it impossible to defend her right of succession.

She wrote letters to the nobility and principal gentry in every county in England, commanding them to assist her; promised them pardon for past offences, and required them immediately to give orders for proclaiming her in London.

Northumberland found that further dissimulation was fruitless. He went to Sion House, accompanied by the Duke of Suffolk, Earl of Pembroke, and others of the nobility, and he approached the Lady Jane, who resided there, with all the respect usually paid to the sovereign.

Jane was, in a great measure, ignorant of these transactions, and it was with equal grief and surprise that she received intelligence of them. She was a lady amiable, engaging, and accomplished, and being of equal age of the late king, had received all her education with him. She was passionately fond of the arts and sciences, and had a tender regard for her husband, who was deserving of her affection, and was not given to flattery or ambition; so that the intelligence of her elevation to the throne was no wise agreeable to her. She even refused to accept the present; pleaded the preferable title of the two princesses, expressed her dread of the consequences attending so dangerous an enterprise, and desired to remain in the private station in which she was born. Overcome at last by the persuasions and entreaties of her father and father-in-law, and, above all, of her husband, she submitted to their will, and was prevailed on to relinquish her own judgment. It was then usual for the kings of England, after their accession, to pass the first days in the Tower, and Northumberland immediately conveyed thither the new sovereign.

All the councillors were obliged to attend her to that fortress, and by this means became, in reality, prisoners in the hands of

Northumberland, whose will they were obliged to obey. Orders were given to the council to proclaim Jane throughout the kingdom, but they were only executed in London and the neighborhood on July 10, 1553. No applause ensued.

The people of Suffolk, meanwhile, paid their attendance on Mary. As they were attached to the reformed religion, they expressed their fears of her course toward it, but Mary assured them she never meant to change the laws of England. They then enlisted themselves in her cause with zeal and affection.

The nobility and gentry daily flocked to her, and brought her reinforcements. Sir Edward Hastings, who had received a commission from the council to make levies for Jane in Buckinghamshire, carried over his troops, amounting to four thousand men, and joined Mary.

Even a fleet which had been sent by Northumberland to lie off the coast of Suffolk declared for that princess also. Northumberland, now seeing danger gathering around him, departed for Bury St. Edmunds, where his forces were gathered, and finding they only numbered about six thousand men, a body too weak to encounter Mary's forces, numbering double his army, wrote to the council desiring them to send him reinforcements. That body immediately laid hold of the opportunity to free themselves from confinement. They left the Tower as if by Northumberland's commands, and met at Baynard Castle to deliberate upon throwing off his usurped tyranny. Arundel opened the conference by proposing a speedy return to the duty which they owed to their lawful sovereign, which was immediately agreed to. The mayor and aldermen of London were immediately sent for, who showed great alacrity in obeying the orders they received to proclaim Mary, and the people expressed their approbation by shouts of applause; even Suffolk, who commanded in the Tower, opened the gates and declared for Queen Mary.

Lady Jane, after the vain pageantry of wearing the crown for ten days, returned to private life with satisfaction, and Northumberland, despairing of success and deserted by his followers, had also declared for Mary.

Mary—A.D. 1553–1558.

Born at Greenwich, February 18, 1516.

Crowned November 30, 1553.

Married Philip, Prince of Spain, son of the Emperor Charles V., July 25, 1554.

Died in London, November 17, 1558. No issue.

Buried at Westminster.

MARY, eldest daughter of Henry VIII. by his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, first Queen Regnant of England, was born at the Palace of Greenwich, February 18, 1516, and proclaimed queen July 18, 1553.

On the queen's approach to London on August 3, 1553, she was received everywhere by the people with the greatest expressions of loyalty and attachment, and the Lady Elizabeth met her at the head of a thousand horse, which that princess had levied in order to support their joint title against the usurper.

Mary's first act on arriving in London was to give orders for taking into custody the Duke of Northumberland, who was committed to the Tower, together with his three sons and several other noblemen. The queen afterward confined the Duke of Suffolk, Lady Jane Gray and her husband, Lord Guilford Dudley; but she was desirous, in the beginning of her reign, to acquire popularity by the appearance of clemency, and because the counsellors pleaded constraint as an excuse for their treason, she extended her pardon to most of them. Suffolk even recovered his liberty.

But the guilt of Northumberland was too great, as well as his ambition too dangerous, to promise him any reasonable hopes of life. He was tried, found guilty of treason, and executed on August 22, 1553. He died professing the Catholic religion. Sentence was also pronounced against Lady Jane Gray and Lord Guilford Dudley, but without any present intention of putting it into execution.

When Mary first arrived in the Tower, the Duke of Norfolk, Courtney, son of the Earl of Exeter, Gardiner, Bonner, and Tonsal all appeared before her, and implored her clemency and protection. They were all immediately restored to liberty,

and admitted to her confidence and favor. Norfolk's attainder was made null and invalid; Courtney soon after was created Earl of Devonshire; Gardiner, Bonner, Tonstal, Day, Heath, and Vesey were reinstated in their sees, and, on pretence of discouraging controversy, all preachers throughout England were silenced. Holgate, Archbishop of York, Bishops Coverdale, Ridley, and Hooper were thrown into prison. The zealous bishops and priests were encouraged in their forwardness to revive the mass, though contrary to existing laws; the judges who had shown consistency in defending the queen's title, in the granting of letters patent by Edward to Jane Gray, lost all their merit by an opposition to those illegal practices, and were cast into prison.

The men of Suffolk were browbeaten, because they presumed to plead the promise which the queen, when they enlisted themselves in her service, had given them, of maintaining the reformed religion, and though she promised in public to tolerate those who differed from her, men foresaw that this promise would prove but a feeble security when set in opposition to religious prejudices.

A report being spread that Archbishop Cranmer, in order to pay court to the queen, had promised to officiate in the Latin service, the archbishop, to deny this aspersion, published a manifesto in which he called the mass a device of the devil to persecute Christ and His true religion, etc., for which he was thrown into prison, tried, and sentence of high treason passed against him, on the ground that he concurred with Lady Jane Gray in opposing the queen's succession, and he was reserved for sentence.

The leading foreign Reformed preachers were silenced, and ordered to leave the country, and several English Protestants took shelter in foreign parts. Mary was crowned November 30, 1553.

Parliament met on October 5, 1553, and it was soon seen that the majority of that body would be obsequious to Mary's designs, and as the peers were generally attached to the court from interest, or expectations, little opposition was expected from that quarter.

The two Houses of Parliament were opened by the celebra-

tion of the mass in Latin, although abolished by act of Parliament. The first bill passed rescinded every species of treason not contained in the statute of Edward III., and of felony that did not subsist before Henry VIII. Parliament next declared the queen to be legitimate, ratified the marriage between Henry and Catherine, annulled the divorce pronounced by Cranmer; all the statutes of King Edward VI. in regard to religion were repealed in one vote. Mary's marriage was of the next importance. There were three on which it was supposed that she had deliberated upon; the first person proposed to her was Courtney, Earl of Devonshire, who, being an Englishman, could not fail to be acceptable to the nation. Hints were dropped to him, but he neglected his opportunities, evidently preferring the Lady Elizabeth, which occasioned great coldness in Mary toward him, and a declared animosity against Elizabeth, and that, with her attachment to the reformed religion, exposed her to great danger.

Cardinal Reginald Pole, who had never taken priest's orders, was another party proposed to the queen, and there appeared many reasons to induce her to make choice of this prelate; but the cardinal, being in the decline of life, was represented to her as unqualified for the bustle of court and the hurry of business. But being desirous to reconcile herself and her kingdom to the Holy See, requested the Pope, Julius III., to appoint Pole legate at her court.

No sooner did the Emperor Charles hear of the death of Edward, and the accession of his kinswoman Mary to the crown of England, than he formed the scheme of acquiring that kingdom to his family.

His son Philip was a widower, and though he was only twenty-seven years of age, eleven years younger than the queen, this objection it was hoped would be overlooked, and there was no reason to despair of her still having issue.

The emperor, therefore, immediately sent over an agent to signify his intentions to Mary, who, pleased with the support of so powerful an alliance, and glad to unite herself more closely with her mother's family, to which she was always strongly attached, readily accepted the proposal, on which Parliament sent

a committee to remonstrate against such a dangerous alliance, when Mary, to prevent further applications of the same kind, dissolved that body, December 6, 1553.

The new laws in regard to religion were put into execution, the mass was everywhere re-established, marriage was declared incompatible with any spiritual office, and three-fourths of the clergy, on that account, were deprived of their livings, and were forbidden to take the oath of supremacy established by the laws of Henry VIII.

This violent and sudden change in religion filled the Protestants with great alarm, but the Spanish marriage was a matter of more general concern, and spread universal discontent and fears for the liberty and independence of the nation. To obviate all disturbance, the articles of marriage were drawn as favorable as possible for the interest and security of England. It was agreed that, though Philip should have the title of king, the administration should be entirely in the queen, that no foreigner should enjoy any office in the kingdom; that no innovation should be made in English laws, customs, or privileges; that Philip could not carry the queen abroad without her consent, nor any of her children without the consent of the nobility; that £60,000 a year should be settled as her jointure; that the male issue of this marriage should inherit together with England, Burgundy, and the Low Countries, and that if Don Carlos, Philip's son by a former marriage, should die, and his line be extinct, the queen's issue, whether male or female, should inherit Spain, Sicily, Milan, and all the other dominions of Philip.

These articles, when published, gave no satisfaction to the nation: it was said the emperor would agree to any terms to get possession of England, and then had no intention of observing them. That the Netherlands, Milan, Sicily, and Naples, groaned under the burden of Spanish tyranny, and Philip would reduce England to the most abject servitude. These complaints being spread everywhere prepared the people for a rebellion, and had any foreign power given them encouragement, or any great man appeared to head them, the consequences would have proved fatal to the queen's authority.

A rebellion broke out, led by Sir Thomas Wyatt in Kent, and Sir Peter Carew in Devonshire. They engaged the Duke of Suffolk, by the hopes of recovering the crown for the Lady Jane, to attempt a rising in the Midland counties, but owing to the impatience of Carew, each section was suppressed before they could act in concert; the leaders, together with four hundred other rebels, were executed on February 6, 1554.

This rebellion proved fatal to Lady Jane Gray and her husband. The Duke of Suffolk's rising and guilt was imputed to her, and the queen was now determined to remove every person from whom the least danger could be expected, and on July 12, 1554, Lady Jane and Lord Guilford Dudley were executed.

The Lady Elizabeth was now treated with great harshness by her sister, and many marks of disrespect had been shown her. She was ordered to take place at court, after the Countess of Lennox and Duchess of Suffolk, as if she was not legitimate, and soon after Wyatt's rebellion she was sent to the Tower. In order to send her out of the kingdom a marriage was offered her with the Duke of Savoy, which she declined; she was then committed to custody, and sent with a strong guard to Woodstock, where she was confined.

The Duke of Suffolk and Lord Thomas Gray were tried, found guilty of treason, and executed. Sir Nicholas Throgmorton was tried at Guildhall, but there being no satisfactory evidence against him, he was acquitted, which so enraged the queen that she recommitted him to the Tower, where he remained a long time. The jury that acquitted him were summoned before the council, and then committed to prison, and fined £1,000 apiece. This violence proved fatal to several of them.

The queen now filled the Tower and all the prisons with nobility and gentry, for whom she had the least suspicion, and finding she was now universally hated, she determined to disable the people from resistance, by seizing all their arms and storing them in forts and castles.

A parliament was called to meet in London, April 5, 1554, and the Emperor Charles sent over the sum of four hundred

thousand crowns to bribe the members who opposed the Spanish marriage, and not to give the public any alarm, the queen, notwithstanding her bigotry, resumed the title of Supreme Head of the Church, which she had dropped three months previous.

At last came the moment so impatiently waited for; Philip had landed at Southampton. He journeyed to London, and they were married at Westminster, July 25, 1554. From thence they went to Windsor Castle, where they afterward resided. Philip's behavior was not calculated to remove the prejudices which the English people had entertained against him.

He was distant, reserved, and overbearing; took no notice of the salutes of the highest nobility, and so entrenched himself in form and ceremony that he was quite inaccessible.

The zeal of the Catholics, the influence of Spanish gold, the power of the court, together with the intrigues of Gardiner, had procured the queen a House of Commons to her satisfaction.

Cardinal Pole had arrived in England as legate. His first act was to invite Parliament to reconcile themselves and the kingdom to the Holy See.

Both houses voted an address to Philip and Mary, acknowledging that they had been guilty of a most horrible defection from the true church, professing a sincere repentance, and declaring their resolution to repeal all laws enacted in prejudice to the Church of Rome, and praying their majesties that, since they were happily uninfected with that criminal schism, they would intercede with the Holy Father for his absolution and forgiveness. The request was easily granted. The legate, in the name of His Holiness, gave the Parliament and kingdom absolution, and freed them from all censures, and received them again into the bosom of the Holy Mother Church. Parliament then repealed the former statutes enacted against the Pope's authority, with the understanding that all the abbey and church lands previously taken should remain with their present possessors. Having secured those lands, they revived the old sanguinary laws against heretics, also several statutes against seditious words and rumors, and made it treason to imagine or attempt the death of Philip during his marriage with the queen,

but refused to declare Philip as presumptive heir to the throne, or consent to his coronation.

Philip, sensible of the feeling against him, endeavored to gain popularity by procuring the release of the Lady Elizabeth, and protecting her from the spite and malice of the queen, as well as the release of several other prisoners of distinction.

The queen now believed she was pregnant, and Parliament passed a law making Philip protector to the heir, in case of the death of the queen; but it only proved to be the commencement of a dropsy, from which she ultimately died, and, finding she could obtain no further concessions, dissolved Parliament January 16, 1555.

It was now determined to let loose the laws in their full vigor against the reformed religion, and England was soon filled with scenes of horror, which have ever since rendered the Catholic religion the object of general detestation, and which prove that no human depravity can equal revenge and cruelty covered with the mantle of religion. The persecutors began with John Rogers, Prebendary of St. Paul's, a man eminent for virtue as well as learning, who was burned February 4, 1555. Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester, was next tried, and found guilty, and was sent to his diocese for execution. Saunders was burned at Coventry; Philpot at Smithfield; Ferrar, Bishop of St. David's, was burned in his own diocese; Ridley, Bishop of London, and Latimer, formerly Bishop of Worcester, two prelates celebrated for learning and virtue, perished together in the flames at Oxford; others, male and female, without distinction of age, suffered. The persons condemned to the flames were not convicted of teaching or dogmatizing contrary to the established religion; they were seized merely on suspicion, and, articles being offered them to subscribe, they were immediately upon their refusal condemned.

A bold step was even taken to introduce the Inquisition into England, but failing, a commission of twenty-one persons was appointed, armed with full authority to search after and punish all heretics, the sellers or readers of heretical books, all persons that did not hear mass, all preachers that did not preach the

sacrament of the altar, when found, were punished according to the spiritual laws.

Among those who suffered by fire were five bishops, twenty-one clergymen, eight lay gentlemen, eighty-four tradesmen, one hundred husbandmen, servants, and laborers, fifty-five women, and four children.

These persecutions were now become so odious to the nation, and the effects of the public discontent appeared in the new Parliament summoned to meet at Westminster, October 21, 1555, and the queen finding the members intractable soon after dissolved that body.

The Emperor Charles V., though in the vigor of his age, resigned his German possessions to Philip on October 25th, and early the following year all his other dominions, and embarked on board ship, and with a fleet sailed for Spain, and then took journey to St. Juste, a monastery in Estramadura. Having taken a dislike to the world, he was determined to seek, in the tranquillity of a retreat, that happiness which he had vainly sought amidst the tumults of war and the restless projects of ambition.

An act of barbarity was this year exercised on Archbishop Crammer. He was cited by the Pope to stand his trial for heresy in Rome, and though it was known he was kept close prisoner at Oxford, upon not appearing he was condemned as contumacious, and on March 21, 1556, was burned at the stake. After his death Cardinal Pole was installed in the See of Canterbury.

Mary was now neglected by her husband, to whom she was fondly attached. For his sake she declared war against France, June 7, 1557, and the English forces took part in the battles of St. Quintin and Gravelines, where the French were defeated. The whole of France was thrown into consternation, and had the Spaniards marched on Paris, it must have fallen into their hands.

The following year the French captured Calais, which the English had held for over two hundred years. War with France brought on war with Scotland.

The loss of Calais was so mortifying to the English, that they

insisted that Philip should make no peace with France without providing for its restoration. The English murmured loudly against the improvidence of the queen and her council for engaging in a fruitless war for the sake of a foreign alliance, and had thus exposed the nation to such great disgrace.

In order to connect Scotland more closely with France, and to increase the influence of the latter kingdom, it was thought proper by the king to celebrate the marriage between the young Queen Mary and the dauphin, and they were accordingly married April 24, 1558.

Mary summoned Parliament, and demanded supplies for the purpose of raising a fleet and army to redeem their loss of Calais.

A fleet of one hundred and forty ships was fitted out, carrying six thousand land forces, and sailed for the coast of Brittany, but the equipment of the fleet was so long delayed that the French were well prepared to receive them.

The French and Spanish armies again met near Gravelines, a battle ensued, and the Spaniards gained a complete victory. The main army of France, under the Duke of Guise, and that of Spain, under the Duke of Savoy, approached each other on the frontiers of Picardy, and as the two kings had come into their respective camps, and as Philip, notwithstanding his victories, was anxious to put an end to the war by treaty, he entered into negotiations with Henry for that end, and as the terms offered by the two monarchs were somewhat wide of each other, the armies were put into winter quarters until the two kings could come to some definite understanding. In the midst of these negotiations news arrived of the death of Mary, and Philip, no longer connected with England, began to relax in his demands for the interest of that kingdom.

Mary had long been in declining health, and mistaking her disease, had made use of improper treatment. Every reflection now tormented her. The consciousness of being hated by her subjects, the prospect of Elizabeth's succession, apprehensions of the danger to which the Catholic religion stood exposed, sorrow for the loss of Calais, and, above all, anxiety for the absence of her husband, who, she knew, soon intended to depart

for Spain, and to settle there for the remainder of his life—all these reflections preyed upon her mind, and threw her into a lingering fever of which she died November 17, 1558, leaving no issue. Mary possessed few qualities either estimable or amiable, and her person was as little engaging as her behaviour or address. Obstinacy, bigotry, violence, cruelty, malignity, revenge, tyranny, every circumstance of her character indicated her bad temper and narrow understanding.

Mary died in the forty-second year of her age, and the fifth year of her reign, and was succeeded by her half-sister Elizabeth.

Elizabeth—A.D. 1558–1603.

Born at Greenwich, September 7, 1533.

Crowned, January 15, 1559.

Died at Richmond, March 24, 1603 ; unmarried.

Buried at Westminster.

ELIZABETH, last monarch of the Tudor line, second living daughter of Henry VIII. and his second queen, Anne Boleyn, was born in the palace of Greenwich, September 7, 1533.

On the death of Queen Mary, November 17, 1558, Elizabeth ascended the throne without opposition, and a majority of the nation rejoiced at their happy deliverance. Both houses of Parliament were in session, when Heath, Archbishop of York, then chancellor, notified them of the event ; scarcely a regret appeared, and the two houses resounded with a joyful shout, "God save Queen Elizabeth ; long and happy may she reign."

Elizabeth was at Hatfield when she heard of her sister's death, and after a few days travelled to London, arriving there November 24th, where she was met by crowds of people, who strove with each other to show her the strongest marks of their regard and affection.

On her entrance into the Tower, she could not help reflecting on the great difference between her present fortune and that which a few years before had attended her, when she was conducted to that place as a prisoner. She fell on her knees and thanked heaven for her deliverance.

With a prudence and magnanimity truly laudable she buried

all offenses in oblivion, and received with affability even those who had treated her with the greatest unkindness.

When the bishops came in a body to pay her their respects, she expressed to all of them sentiments of her regard, except to Bonner, from whom she turned aside as from a man polluted.

One of her first acts was the appointment of William Cecil, as her principal Secretary of State, and Nicholas Bacon, Keeper of the Great Seal. She retained several Roman Catholics in her privy council, she continued to hear mass until Christmas morning, when she took the final step that placed her at the head of the Protestant world.

After employing a few days in ordering her domestic affairs, Elizabeth notified foreign courts of her sister's death, and her own accession.

She sent Lord Cobham to the Low Countries, where Philip II. then resided, to express to that monarch her gratitude for the protection he had afforded her, and her desire to continue the friendship so happily commenced between them. Philip, who had long foreseen this event, and who still hoped, by means of Elizabeth, to obtain that dominion over England of which he had failed in marrying Mary, immediately dispatched orders to the Duke of Feria, his ambassador at London, to make proposals of marriage to the queen, and he offered to procure from Rome a dispensation for that purpose. But Elizabeth soon came to the resolution of declining that proposal. She had also written to her ambassador to Rome to notify her accession to the Pope, but Paul made sharp comments on the message; he told the ambassador, "That England was a fief of the Holy See, and it was great assurance in Elizabeth to have assumed the title and authority of queen, without his permission; that, being illegitimate, she could not possibly inherit that kingdom, nor could he annul the sentence pronounced by Clement VII. and Paul III., with regard to Henry's marriage; he required her to submit her claim, as against that of Mary Stuart, to his arbitration. That, were he to proceed with rigor, he should punish this criminal invasion of his rights, but would keep the door of grace open to her."

On receiving this answer the queen was indignant, and im-

mediately recalled the ambassador, whom the Pope frightened into staying at Rome under the threat of excommunication. And the queen continued with more determined resolution to pursue the measure she had secretly intended, and in which she was strengthened by Cecil's advice. Her education as well as interest led her to favor the Reformation, and she remained not long in suspense with regard to the party she should embrace; but, though determined in her own mind, she resolved to proceed by gradual and secure steps, and not to imitate the example of her sister, in encouraging the bigots of her party to make immediate and violent changes in the religion established.

Deeming it requisite to give some idea of her intentions, so as to give encouragement to the Protestants so long persecuted, she immediately recalled all the exiles, and gave liberty to the prisoners who were confined on account of religion. She also changed the order of service, and obliged them to be read in English instead of Latin, and forbade the Host to be any more elevated.

These declarations of her intentions agreeing with preceding suspicions, made the bishops foresee with certainty a revolution in religion. They therefore refused to officiate at her coronation, and it was with some difficulty that the Bishop of Carlisle was at last prevailed on to perform the ceremony, January 15, 1559.

Parliament was summoned, and the queen delayed any change in the religion until it assembled. The election had gone entirely against the Roman Catholics, and the houses met with a disposition to gratify the queen in every particular.

They began the session with an unanimous declaration that Queen Elizabeth was and ought to be the lawful and true heir to the crown, lawfully descended from the blood-royal, according to the order of succession settled by Henry VIII.

The first bill brought into Parliament with a view of trying their strength on the head of religion was that for the suppressing the monasteries lately erected, and for restoring the tenths and first fruits to the queen. This point being gained without much difficulty, a bill was next introduced acknowledging the supremacy of the crown. All the bishops who were present in

the upper house strongly opposed this law, but the majority in both houses were against them. By this act the crown was vested with the whole spiritual power—might repress all heresies, might establish or repeal all canons, might alter every point of discipline, and might ordain or abolish any religious rite or ceremony. In order to exercise this authority, the queen, by a clause of this act, was empowered to name commissioners, either lay or clerical, as she thought proper; and it was enacted that whoever refused to take the oath of the queen's supremacy was incapacitated from holding any office; whoever denied the supremacy were liable to fines for first and second offence, and for the third was guilty of treason. A law was passed confirming all the statutes passed in King Edward's time with regard to religion, the election of bishops was given to the crown without any election of the chapters; the queen was empowered, on the vacancy of any see, to seize all the temporalities, and to bestow on the bishop-elect an equivalent. The most important bill was now introduced for abolishing the mass and re-establishing the liturgy of King Edward.

And thus, in one session, without any violence or tumult, was the whole system of religion altered by the will of a young woman.

Parliament was prorogued May 8, 1559, and the laws enacted with regard to religion were put into execution, and met with little opposition from any quarter. The liturgy was introduced in the English language, and the oath of supremacy was tendered to the clergy. The number of bishops had been reduced to fourteen by a sickly season which had just passed, and all these, except the Bishop of Llandaff, having refused compliance, had been removed from their sees; but of the inferior clergy throughout all England, where there are nearly ten thousand parishes, only one hundred and sixty-five of all ranks sacrificed their livings for their religious principles.

Negotiations for peace were still conducted between the ministers of France, Spain, and England, and Philip employed his utmost efforts to procure the restitution of Calais, both as bound in honor to indemnify England and for his own interest to remove France from his frontiers of the Low Countries. So long

as he entertained hopes of marrying Elizabeth he delayed concluding a peace with Henry, and even after his own terms with France were agreed to, he seemed willing to continue the war until Elizabeth should obtain satisfaction, provided she would stipulate to adhere to the Spanish alliance and continue hostilities against Henry during the course of six years. But Elizabeth, after consulting her ministers, wisely rejected the proposal, and a peace with France ensued, in which Scotland was included (April 12, 1559).

After the marriage of Mary Queen of Scots and the Dauphin of France, the Duke of Guise and his brothers, thinking it would add greatly to their position if their niece should bring an accession of England, as she had done of Scotland, to the crown of France, engaged the king not to neglect the claim, and, by their persuasion, he ordered his son and daughter-in-law to assume openly the arms as well as the title of king and queen of England, and to quarter these arms on all their equipages, furniture, and liveries.

When the English ambassador complained of this injury, he could only obtain an evasive answer—that as the Queen of Scots was descended from the blood-royal of England, she was entitled, by the example of many princes, to assume the arms of that kingdom. Elizabeth plainly saw that this pretension had not been advanced during the reign of her sister Mary, and that the King of France intended, on the first opportunity, to dispute her legitimacy and her title to the crown. Alarmed at the danger, she thenceforth conceived a violent jealousy against the Queen of Scots.

The sudden death of Henry II., and the accession of the Dauphin as Francis II., who still continued to assume, without reserve, the title and arms of England, caused Elizabeth to consider him and his queen her mortal enemies, and the state of affairs in Scotland afforded her a favorable opportunity both of revenging the injury and providing for her own safety.

She thereon fitted out a fleet of thirteen ships and sent it to the Firth of Forth, January, 1560, and assembled at Berwick an army of eight thousand men to assist the Scottish Reformers, concluded a treaty of mutual defence with them, which

was to last during the marriage of Queen Mary with Francis, and one year after, and she promised never to desist until the French had entirely evacuated Scotland; she then ordered her army and fleet to begin operations. The appearance of the fleet in the Forth disconcerted the French army, who were at that time ravaging the county of Fife, and obliged them to retire to Leith, where they prepared themselves for defence, but they were afterward beaten and had to capitulate.

Two plenipotentiaries were appointed, each by Francis and Elizabeth, and on July 5, 1560, it was stipulated that the French should immediately evacuate Scotland, and the king and queen of France and Scotland should thenceforth abstain from bearing the arms of England, or assuming the title of that kingdom, and that further satisfaction for the injury already done should be granted Elizabeth, and that commissioners should meet to settle that point. The Scottish Reformers being now entirely masters of the kingdom, cemented their union with England. Francis II. being now dead, Queen Mary applied to Elizabeth for permission to travel through England to Edinburgh, and was denied, but Mary embarked at Calais, and succeeded in eluding a fleet fitted out by Elizabeth to intercept her, owing to a thick fog, and on the 19th of August, 1561, landed safely in Leith.

In 1562, the Prince of Condé, on the part of the French Huguenots, applied to Elizabeth for assistance, and offered to put Havre into the hands of the English, which offer was accepted by her, and an English army took possession of the town, and rendered good service to the Huguenots. But the captivity of Condé and Montmorency, who were taken prisoners in battle, and the assassination of the Duke of Guise, made both parties anxious for peace, which the Huguenots accordingly concluded with Queen Catherine, March 19th, without consulting Elizabeth, who refused to surrender Havre; she sent orders to the Earl of Warwick, commander of the town, to prepare himself for an attack of the united power of France. The plague, however, having broken out among the garrison, and made great ravages, he was obliged to capitulate and content himself with being allowed to embark with his troops. To in-

crease the misfortune the infected army brought the plague with them to England.

In 1563 Parliament entreated the queen to marry, the question of the succession being one of great interest to all classes of her subjects, who were not yet free from the terror caused by the war of the Roses. Candidates for her hand continued to spring up, both at home and abroad. Among her suitors were the Duke of Anjou, the Archduke Charles of Austria, Henry Fitzalan, eighteenth and last Earl of Arundel, and Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, who was for many years her chief favorite. Elizabeth was also entreated to acknowledge Mary Stuart as presumptive heiress, but she would not do so, and the question was left open.

In 1563 Elizabeth and Mary became reconciled, and a friendship appears to have sprung up between them; they wrote friendly letters to each other, and had adopted, in all appearance, the sentiments as well as style of sisters. Elizabeth even punished one Hales, who had published a book against Mary's title. Elizabeth now proposed to the Queen of Scots that if she would marry an English gentleman she would examine into her title, and declare her successor to the crown. She proposed Lord Robert Dudley, afterward Earl of Leicester, whom Mary rejected, on the ground of his not possessing sufficient dignity.

The proposal to marry Mary was in no way agreeable to Dudley, as, from Elizabeth's declared attachment to himself, he had aspired to her hand, and in order to make way for that he was accused of having murdered his wife, Amy Robsart, in a barbarous manner.

Queen Mary had several other proposals of marriage—from the Duke of Austria, Prince of Spain, King of Sweden, Duke of Orleans, Prince de Condé, and the young King of France applied to Rome for a dispensation to be allowed to marry her (his brother's widow). But she had already decided in her own mind to marry her cousin Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, son of the Earl of Lennox. Elizabeth was alarmed at this union, as each was thought by some to have a better claim to the throne than herself. She ordered Darnley and his father immediately,

upon their allegiance, to return to England, and on their refusing imprisoned the Countess of Lennox in the Tower.

Mary was married on July 25, 1565, and Darnley was created Duke of Albany. She was taken by his youth and beauty, but quite overlooked the qualities of his mind. He proved to be a man of immoral character, and after the marriage continued his lewd and debauched practices; he showed marked disrespect to her person, not tolerating the sight of any one the queen favored. The first to suffer was the Italian Rizzio, whom he caused to be assassinated in the queen's closet and in her presence. Mary's whole conduct now appeared to change, and she talked openly of obliging Elizabeth to recognize her as heir presumptive to the throne of England.

She also ordered the re-establishment of the mass in the High Church, Edinburgh. Soon after Darnley and his friends formed a party and took possession of the queen, keeping her a close prisoner for a time.

On June 19, 1566, she was delivered of a son, afterward James VI. of Scotland—James I. of England. This event caused the English Parliament again to press Elizabeth for her marriage and settlement of the succession, at which she expressed her displeasure.

In December Darnley was taken with a dangerous illness at the house of his father in Glasgow. Mary, forgetting all former ill-usage, visited him there, and as soon as he was well enough had him removed to Edinburgh, where they arrived January 30, 1567. They lodged at the house formerly belonging to the Superior of the church of Kirk-o-field, being better in a sanitary way than Holyrood House. The queen remained with him until February 9th, and at eleven o'clock at night left to attend a ball given at the palace on account of the marriage of one of her attendants. Before morning the inhabitants of Edinburgh were alarmed by a dreadful explosion, which proved to be in the house where Darnley lodged, and his body was afterward found in a garden adjoining.

The Earl of Bothwell was suspected of being a principal actor in this tragedy, and at the queen's instance, but she was afterward acquitted of all connection with it.

Bothwell was a man of considerable family and power in Scotland, but of profligate habits, and had only recently acquired the favor and confidence of Mary.

Very soon Bothwell made pretensions for the queen's hand, and formed a conspiracy with leading noblemen for that purpose, which he put into effect in a forcible manner. The queen, having occasion to make a journey from Edinburgh to Stirling with a slender suite, was surrounded by a large body of horse, with Bothwell at its head. No resistance being offered, Mary was carried off to his fortified castle of Dunbar, with an avowed design of forcing her to yield to his purpose (some say the affair was all settled between them previously). Fearing the consequences, he brought her back to Edinburgh, and on May 15th they were married, he having a few days previously procured an irregular divorce from his wife, Lady Jane Gordon, sister of the Earl of Huntley, to enable him to marry. This marriage was also a most unfortunate one, as he very soon showed his true character, and treated her in a brutal manner. She often threatened to end her life to free her from his tyranny.

Both Elizabeth and the French king protested against such a match, and foretold the consequences sure to follow.

An association of noblemen was soon formed against Bothwell, who had been created Duke of Orkney, and he, fearing danger, escaped to his castle of Dunbar, and finally to the Orkney Islands and Denmark.

Queen Mary was sent prisoner to Loch Leven Castle, June 16, 1567, and her infant son James was placed upon the throne, with the Earl of Murray as Regent. On July 29, 1567, James was crowned at Stirling. Whatever Elizabeth's secret intentions were, she showed great displeasure at the proceedings of the Associated Lords, and gave her ambassador orders not to attend or recognize the coronation.

For some time many of Mary's friends were awaiting a chance for her escape. One or two attempts had failed. On May 2, 1568, by the assistance of a young nobleman, George Douglas, whom Mary was in love with, had a boat in waiting, and while the family were at supper conveyed her, with an attendant, to the side of the lake, where friends were ready to receive her;

she then rode to Hamilton, and from thence to England, where she arrived May 16th.

On Mary's arrival at Carlisle, she immediately despatched a messenger to Elizabeth, notifying her arrival, and asking leave to visit her, and craving protection in consequence of her former professions of friendship.

Elizabeth had previously received the information of her arrival from Lord Scrope, and summoned a Privy Council to decide how she was to act, and they advised, as Mary had arrived in England without any safe-conduct or assurance from Elizabeth, she therefore became her prisoner, and Lord Scrope was notified accordingly to keep strict watch over all her motions, that she may not regain her liberty. Cecil concluded that the most fortunate event of Elizabeth's reign was that she had her most formidable enemy in custody, and that she should be brought to trial for her husband's murder.

Three commissioners were appointed each by Elizabeth and Mary's friends to meet at York, but Elizabeth was predetermined on Mary's condemnation, or of protracting the proceedings in such a manner that her confinement should be next to perpetual.

Serious troubles now existed all over England, and affairs abroad assumed a critical character. The asylum England afforded to those who fled from persecution in Flanders offended Spain. The English flag was insulted in the Gulf of Mexico, and the English ambassador was badly treated at Madrid. The queen retaliated by seizing treasure found on Spanish vessels that had taken refuge in England, and when Alva laid an embargo on Englishmen and their property, she arrested all Spaniards in England, not even excepting the ambassador. Elizabeth corresponded directly with Philip, but that monarch took a high tone, and threatened war.

The Duke of Norfolk became attached to Queen Mary. Elizabeth bade him be on his guard. He was afterward arrested and imprisoned.

The great northern rebellion broke out in 1569, headed by the Catholic earls of Westmoreland and Northumberland, but was rapidly crushed by the Earl of Sussex, and eight hundred of the rebels executed.

In 1570 Elizabeth was excommunicated by Pope Pius V., and a copy of the bull was fastened on the gate of the Episcopal Palace of London by a Catholic named Felton, who was put to the rack and executed.

Parliament met on April 2, 1571, after an interval of five years. After the Speaker of the Commons was elected, the Lord Chancellor told the House, by the queen's command, that she enjoined them not to meddle with any matters of state—which was supposed to mean the questions of the queen's marriage and succession.

In this parliament members were restrained from liberty of speech, and the House was silenced, and prevented legislating on patents and monopolies—the sole prerogative of the crown.

The Duke of Norfolk was tried for high treason January 12, 1572, for aiding Mary in a conspiracy against the queen, and supplying money to her agents in Scotland. He was found guilty, and executed May 8th following.

Philip, to retaliate for the assistance given by Elizabeth to his rebels in the Low Countries, had sent, under the name of the Pope, a body of seven hundred Spaniards and Italians to Ireland, where the inhabitants, always discontented with the English government, were ready to join any invader. The Spanish general built a fort in Kerry, and being there besieged by the Earl of Ormond, made a weak and cowardly defence. After some assaults he surrendered, and Lord Gray, who commanded but a small force, finding himself encumbered with so many prisoners, put all the Spaniards and Italians to the sword without mercy, and hanged about fifteen hundred of the Irish—a cruelty which gave great displeasure to the queen.

Sir Francis Drake, with the consent of Elizabeth, set sail from Plymouth in December, 1577, with four ships and a pinnace, on board of which were one hundred and sixty-four able seamen; he passed into the South Sea by the Straits of Magellan, and attacking the Spaniards, took many rich prizes, returning home by way of the Cape of Good Hope. He was the first Englishman who sailed round the world.

Another session of Parliament took place January 16, 1581. After passing the supplies, bills were enacted for the security

of the government, chiefly against the attempts of the Roman Catholics, owing to some late discoveries of the treasonable practices of the priests.

After another failure to bring about a marriage between the Archduke Charles and Elizabeth, it was proposed she should marry the Duke of Alençon, just created Duke of Anjou. He came secretly to Greenwich, and, after some conference with her, departed, but the purport was not known; and although his appearance was not prepossessing, he lost no ground by his personal interview. On his return the French king sent over a splendid embassy to treat with English commissioners respecting the marriage contract, and it was agreed the marriage should take place in six weeks after the ratification of the articles.

It was stipulated that the duke and his retinue should be allowed the exercise of their religion; that after the marriage he should bear the title of king, but the administration remain solely in the queen; that their children, male or female, should succeed to the crown of England; that if there should be two males, the elder, in case of Henry's death without issue, should be King of France, the younger of England; that if there should be but one male, and he succeed to the crown of France, he should be obliged to reside in England eight months in every two years; that the laws and customs of England should be observed inviolate, and that no foreigner should be promoted by the duke to any office in England. But as a proof of the queen's uncertainty, she added the clause, that she was not bound to complete the marriage until further articles (which were not specified) should be agreed on between the parties, and till the King of France be notified of this agreement. Soon after, the queen sent over Walsingham as ambassador to France, in order to form closer connections with Henry, and enter into a league offensive and defensive against the increasing power and dangerous usurpations of Spain.

During the course of these negotiations Elizabeth felt another change of sentiment between her reason and her ruling passions, and prudence filled her breast with doubt and hesitation. Few of the courtiers whom she trusted and favored made any scruple

of opposing the marriage by their most zealous remonstrances, and after describing the many evils sure to follow, prudence and ambition at last prevailed over her temporary inclination, and having sent for the Duke of Anjou, she had a long conference with him in private, where she was supposed to have made him an apology for breaking off the engagement.

He expressed great dissatisfaction on leaving her, threw away a ring she had given him, uttered many curses on the deceit of women, and avowed his disgust of the English. Soon after, he returned to the Netherlands, whence he was in a short time expelled; he retired into France, and died there.

Cecil was now created Lord Burleigh, and made Lord High Treasurer, and Sir Thomas Smith, principal Secretary of State.

A new parliament met November 23, 1584. An act was passed by which the queen was empowered to name commissioners for the trial of any pretender to the crown who should attempt or imagine any invasion, insurrection, or assassination against her; upon condemnation pronounced by these commissioners, the guilty person was excluded from all claim to the succession, and was further punishable as her majesty should direct. And for the greater security, a council of regency, in case of the queen's violent death, was appointed to govern the kingdom, to settle the succession, and to take vengeance for that act of treason.

This was specially directed at Mary Queen of Scots. A severe law was also passed against Jesuits and Popish priests; they were ordered to depart the kingdom within forty days, under penalty of being tried for treason, and the exercise of the Roman Catholic religion was entirely suppressed.

The Emperor Maximilian II. offered the hand of his son Rudolph to Elizabeth, who was old enough to be his mother; but it was declined. Henry of Navarre also placed himself at her disposal, but was also rejected.

The Dutch offered their government to Elizabeth, whom they respected as a descendant from Philippa of Hainault. Fearing hostility from Philip, and making it a precedent against herself in Ireland or with her discontented subjects at home, she declined, but rendered them assistance in other ways.

Ireland gave great trouble at this time, and the contest waged there by Lord Mountjoy was called by the Irish the "Hag's War," in derision of the queen.

Conspiracies began to multiply around Elizabeth, naturally having Mary Stuart as their central figure, in one of which the Spanish minister, Mendoza, was implicated, and forced to leave the country; many persons were executed, and others imprisoned.

Elizabeth, finding an open breach with Philip was unavoidable, despatched a fleet of twenty ships and twenty-five hundred volunteers besides seamen, under Sir Francis Drake, to attack the Spanish possessions in the West Indies, where they met with great success. They then sailed for the coast of Florida, and burned St. Anthony and St. Helens. Sailing along the coast of Virginia, they found the small remains of a colony planted there by Sir Walter Raleigh, and which had gone entirely to decay. This was the first attempt of the English to form such settlements. Drake's return to England with so much riches encouraged volunteers, and inflamed the country to embark in future enterprises.

Having provoked so powerful an enemy as Philip, the queen was not forgetful to secure a friend, and cultivated the alliance and friendship of James. She sent an ambassador to Scotland, and a league was formed for the mutual defence of the two kingdoms and of their religion. By this alliance James secured himself against all attempts from abroad, and assisted in pacification at home.

The discovery of a conspiracy, in which Anthony Babington was a leading actor, which aimed at the simultaneous assassination of Elizabeth and the liberation of Queen Mary, in 1586, proved fatal to the latter, she having consented to the conspiracy, and, it being discovered, the participants were all captured, tried, found guilty, and executed.

Elizabeth was now determined to bring the Queen of Scots to trial, not for treason, but under the act passed in the last parliament in view of this very event. She was conducted to Fotheringay Castle, in Northamptonshire, where the trial was to take place. A court of forty-seven noblemen and privy

councillors was appointed by Elizabeth to examine and pass sentence on Mary, whom she denominated the late Queen of Scots.

Mary at first refused to answer, pleading her royal dignity, but the commissioners would not admit her objection.

At last she admitted negotiating with foreign powers to obtain her liberty, but disclaimed any intention on the life of Elizabeth. The crown lawyers produced copies of intercepted letters between her and her agents, in which her approbation was clearly expressed; also the confessions of others. In reply Mary denied the whole, and said they were forged.

On October 25, 1586, the commissioners reassembled and pronounced her guilty, and sentence of death was passed upon her. Parliament met four days after, and both houses joined in petition to the queen that sentence should be executed, insisting that there was no other possible means of providing for the queen's safety, and that the neglect of it would procure the heavy displeasure and punishment of the Almighty.

As soon as James heard of the trial and condemnation of his mother, he sent Sir William Keith, a gentleman of his bed-chamber, to London, and wrote a letter to the queen in which he remonstrated, in very severe terms, against the indignity of the procedure. Soon after he sent two other noblemen to enforce his remonstrances, and to use every expedient of argument and menaces; but Elizabeth still retained her resolution of executing the sentence.

During winter all kinds of rumors were spread respecting invasions from France, Spain, and Scotland, and of attempts against the queen's life; Elizabeth continued undecided. At length, on February 1, 1587, she signed the death-warrant, and intrusted it to her secretary. The following day she desired him to delay forwarding it, when the secretary told her it had passed the great seal, and had been sent to its destination; she appeared somewhat moved, and blamed him for his precipitation.

On February 8, 1587, Mary, Queen of Scots, perished on the scaffold, in the forty-fifth year of her age, and the nineteenth of her captivity in England.

When Elizabeth was informed of Mary's execution, she professed the utmost surprise and indignation, and accused her ministers of being guilty of an unpardonable crime, in putting to death her dear sister and kinswoman, contrary to her fixed purpose. Although she had herself ordered the death-warrant to be brought to her, which she signed readily and ordered to be sealed with the great seal of England.

It is by some asserted that the death-warrant was a forgery, supposed to have been perpetrated by the order or under the direction of Walsingham.

The Scottish people were enraged, and would have gladly assailed their old enemy, but nothing was done, owing to the plausible excuses and denials made by Elizabeth.

Drake, in the meantime, ravaged the coast of Spain, preyed on her commerce, and made a successful attack on the shipping in the harbor of Cadiz.

Pope Sixtus V. anathematized Elizabeth and proclaimed a crusade against her. Philip II. laid claim to the English throne, as legitimate heir to the house of Lancaster, in virtue of his descent from two daughters of John of Gaunt, who had been Queens of Portugal and Castile; he made open preparations to enforce his claim, and the Pope promised him conditional aid.

The English were not backward in preparing to meet Philip's attack; all parties, Catholics and Puritans, as well all the rest of the people, showed a patriotic spirit. A fleet of eighty sail was got ready, commanded by Lord Howard, Drake, Frobisher, and Hawkins, and two armies were raised, consisting of sixty thousand men.

Philip now determined that the fate of England must be decided by land and sea, and his success against that country would cause the immediate subjection of the Dutch. He had been for some time past making secret arrangements, but as soon as the resolution was fully taken, every part of his vast empire resounded with preparations.

In all the ports of Spain, Portugal, Sicily, and Naples, artisans were employed in the building and fitting out of ships for his navy, of immense size and power; naval stores were bought at great expense, provisions collected, armies levied, and quar-

tered in the maritime towns of Spain, and plans were laid for fitting out such a fleet as never before had its equal. An army of thirty-four thousand men lay in the Netherlands ready to be embarked for England at the proper moment. The Spaniards, ostentations of their power, and elated with vain hopes, had already named their fleet the *Invincible Armada*. The Pope blessed it and sent it a banner. It consisted of one hundred and fifty ships of war, besides transports, with twenty-two thousand men, under command of the Duke of Medina Sidonia, a large number of volunteers from the first families of Spain and Italy, one hundred and eighty priests—for it was hoped to convert as well as conquer—they carried instruments from the Inquisition. It made a gallant show, and sailed early in the month of May, 1588, from Cadiz to invade and conquer England; it rendezvoused at Lisbon, from whence it sailed on June 1st, but owing to a storm it was scattered, and the expedition abandoned for a time. Such was the report, but not the case, as a week afterward it appeared in, and proudly sailed up the channel, making for the coast of Holland, and to take on board the veteran troops collected there, and a body of English deserters.

As the Armada sailed on in a broad line past Plymouth, moving toward its point of junction with Parma, at Dunkirk, the vessels which had gathered under Lord Howard slipped out of the Bay, and hung with the wind upon their rear. In number the two forces were strangely unequal; the English fleet counted only eighty vessels, against the one hundred and fifty, besides transports, which composed the Armada. In size of ships the disproportion was even greater. Fifty of the English vessels, including the squadron of Lord Howard, and the craft of the volunteers were little larger than yachts of the present day. Even of the thirty queen's ships which formed its main body there were only four which equalled in tonnage the smallest of the Spanish galleons. Sixty-five of these galleons formed the most formidable half of the Spanish fleet, and four galliasses, or gigantic galleys, armed with fifty guns apiece, sixty armed merchantmen, and twenty-one pinnaces made up the rest. Small, however, as the English ships were, they were in perfect trim; they sailed two feet for the Spanish one; they were

manned by nine thousand hardy seamen, and their admiral was backed by a crowd of captains who had won fame on the Spanish seas; with him were Hawkins, Frobisher, and Drake, who commanded the volunteers. The English had the advantage of the wind, and their lightly handled vessels fired four shots to the Spaniards' one, and hung boldly on the rear of the great fleet as it moved along the channel. Galleon after galleon was sunk, boarded, or driven on shore; and yet Medina Sidonia failed in bringing his pursuers to a close engagement. Now halting, now moving slowly on, the running fight between the two fleets lasted throughout the week, till the Armada dropped anchor in Calais Roads. The time had now come for sharper work, if the junction of the Armada with Parma was to be prevented, for demoralized as the Spaniards had been by the merciless chase, their loss on ships had not been great, while the English supplies of food and ammunition was fast running out. Howard resolved to force an engagement; and, lighting eight fire-ships at midnight, sent them down with the tide upon the Spanish line.

— The galleons at once cut their cables, and stood out in panic to sea, drifting with the wind in a long line, off Gravelines. Drake, resolved, at all costs, to prevent their return. At daylight the English ships closed fairly in, and almost their last cartridge was spent ere the sun went down. Three great galleons had sunk, three had drifted helplessly on to the Flemish coast; but the bulk of the Spanish vessels remained, and even to Drake the fleet seemed "wonderfully great and strong."

Within the Armada itself, however, all hope was gone. Huddled together with the wind and the deadly English fire, their sails torn, their masts shot away, the crowded galleons had become mere slaughter-houses.

Four thousand men had fallen, and bravely as the seamen fought, they were cowed by the terrible butchery.

Medina himself was in despair. "We are lost," he cried to his bravest captain, Oquinda; "what are we to do?" "Let others talk of being lost," replied the captain; "your Excellency has only to order up fresh cartridges." But Oquinda stood alone; a council of war resolved to retreat to Spain, by

the only course open, that by way of Orkney Islands. "Never anything pleased me better," wrote Drake, "than seeing the enemy fly with a southerly wind to the northward." "Have a good eye to the Prince of Parma, for, with the grace of God, if we like, I doubt not ere it be long, so to handle the matter with the Duke of Medina as he shall wish himself at St. Mary's Port, among his orange trees." But the work of destruction was reserved for a mightier foe than Drake; supplies fell short, and the English vessels were forced to give up the chase.

But the Spanish ships which remained had no sooner reached the Orkneys than the storms of the northern seas broke on them with a fury before which all concert and union disappeared.

Fifty ships reached Corunna bearing ten thousand men stricken with pestilence and death, of the rest some were sunk, some dashed to pieces against the cliffs of the Hebrides, and on the Irish coast.

The wreckers of the Orkneys and the Faroes, and the clansmen of the Scottish Isles, the kerns of Donegal and Galway, all had their part in the work of murder and robbery. Eight thousand Spaniards perished between the Giant's Causeway and the Blaskets. On a strand near Sligo an English captain numbered eleven hundred bodies which had been cast up by the sea.

The flower of the Spanish nobility, who had been sent on the new crusade under Alonzo de Leyva, after twice suffering shipwreck, put a third time to sea to founder on a reef near Dunblane.

Such was the miserable and dishonorable conclusion of an enterprise which had been preparing for three years; which had exhausted the revenue and force of Spain, and had long filled Europe with anxiety and expectation.

The disastrous failure of this expedition did not terminate hostilities between England and Spain, but the country was delivered from the fear of another invasion.

The Earl of Leicester died the same year, and the Earl of Essex now became Elizabeth's favorite minister.

The following year an expedition was sent to effect the liberation of Portugal, but the undertaking signally failed.

Aid in men and money was sent to assist Henry IV. of France, then fighting with Spain and the league, with the understanding that, as soon as the enemy was expelled from France, the charges should be refunded. During these military operations in France, Elizabeth fitted out a fleet of seven ships, under command of Lord Howard, to intercept the West Indian treasure-ships of Spain; but Philip, being informed of her purpose, fitted out a great force of fifty-five sail and dispatched them to convoy his fleet. They fell in with the English ships and succeeded in capturing one vessel, the first English ship of war that had yet fallen into the hands of the Spaniards. This war was attended with considerable expense to England, and a new parliament met on February 19, 1593, to grant supplies. When the speaker, Sir Edward Coke, made the three usual requests of the queen, of freedom from arrest, of access to her person, and of liberty of speech, she replied to him by the mouth of Pickering, Lord Privy Seal, "The liberty of speech was granted, but they must know what liberty they were entitled to; not a liberty for every one to speak what he listeth, or what cometh in his brain to utter; their privilege extended no farther than a liberty of aye or no. She told the speaker if he perceived any idle heads so negligent of their own safety as to attempt reforming the church, or making changes in the commonwealth, that he should refuse the bills presented for that purpose until they were examined by those who were fitted to consider and judge them. She would not endanger the freedom of their persons, but they must beware, lest under color of this privilege, they imagined that any neglect of their duty could be covered or protected; that she would not refuse them access to her person provided it were upon urgent and weighty business, and at times convenient to her."

Notwithstanding this contemptuous speech, a member, Peter Wentworth, ventured to transgress the imperial orders of Elizabeth by presenting a petition with regard to the succession. He with his seconder and two others were immediately imprisoned, and the House had to acquiesce in this arbitrary act and submit to her will.

The decision of Henry IV. of France to abandon the Protes-

tant faith annoyed Elizabeth, who in vain sought to influence his mind to remain firm, but being sensible that the league and the King of Spain were still their common enemies, she received his apologies, continued her succors of men and money, and formed a new treaty, in which they stipulated never to make peace with the enemy unless by mutual agreement. In 1595 Elizabeth, being threatened by Philip with a new invasion of England and with an insurrection in Ireland, recalled most of her forces.

A powerful fleet was fitted out at Plymouth, consisting of one hundred and seventy vessels of all sizes, fully manned; they carried besides eight thousand soldiers. The ships were commanded by Lord Effingham, and set sail on June 1, 1596, and, meeting with a fair wind, departed under sealed orders to a general rendezvous. When they arrived near Cadiz they were fortunate in taking an Irish ship, by which they learned that that port was full of merchant ships of great value. A council of war was held, and it was decided to attack the place, which was soon carried, sword in hand. The English made rich plunder in the city, but missed much richer by the resolution of the Duke of Medina, the Spanish Admiral, of firing the ships to prevent them falling into the hands of the enemy. It was computed the loss to the Spaniards amounted to twenty million ducats. Henry made peace with Philip, 1598, Elizabeth refusing to be a party to it, knowing she could finish the war at any time on equitable terms.

A great rivalry existed between the Earl of Essex, the queen's favorite, and Lord Burleigh, her faithful minister. On one occasion, being concerned in a dispute in the queen's presence about the choice of a governor for Ireland, in which Elizabeth took part, the former became so heated in the argument that he entirely forgot the rules of civility and turned his back upon her in a contemptuous manner. Her temper, naturally quick and violent, rose at this insult, and she instantly gave him a box on the ear, adding a passionate expression suitable to the impertinence. Instead of making submission due to her sex and station, he clapped his hand on his sword and swore he would not bear such usage, were it from Henry VIII. himself. He

immediately withdrew from court, but Elizabeth soon reinstated him in her favor, and her kindness to him appeared rather to have acquired new force from this short interval of anger and resentment.

The death of Lord Burleigh, who had always opposed Essex, occurred about the same time (1598), and seemed to insure him constant possession of the queen's confidence; and nothing, indeed, but his own indiscretion could thenceforth have shaken his well-established position.

Soon after the death of Burleigh, the queen, who regretted extremely the loss of so wise and faithful a minister, was informed of the death of her principal enemy, Philip II., who, after languishing under many infirmities, expired at an advanced age at Madrid, September 13, 1598.

About this time Elizabeth's attention was called to the affairs of Ireland. Though the dominion of the English over that country had been established above four centuries, their authority hitherto had been little more than nominal. A body of one thousand men was supported there, which, on extraordinary emergencies, was augmented to two thousand. Hugh O'Neale, nephew to the great O'Neale, had been raised by the queen to the dignity of Earl of Tyrone, but, having murdered his cousin, son of that rebel, and having been acknowledged head of his clan, he preferred the pride of barbarous license and dominion to the pleasure of opulence and tranquillity, and he fomented all kinds of disorders, by which he hoped to weaken or overturn the English government. He entered into a correspondence with Spain, and procured thence a supply of arms and ammunition, and, having united all the Irish chieftains in a dependence upon himself, he began to be regarded as a formidable enemy.

Tyrone defied and eluded for some years the arms of Sir John Norris, the English commander, and defeated his successor, Sir Henry Bagnal, in a pitched battle at Blackwater, where one thousand five hundred men, together with the general himself, were left dead on the field.

The English council, feeling that the rebellion in Ireland was now come to a dangerous head, resolved to push the war with

more vigorous measures, and Essex prevailed upon the queen to appoint him lord deputy of Ireland, and, to insure him of success, she levied an army of eighteen thousand men.

Essex landed in Dublin in April, 1599, but, instead of bringing the war to an end, as had been expected, he found himself, at the end of the campaign, unable to effect anything against the enemy. By long and tedious marches and sickness, his numbers were reduced to four thousand men.

Essex hearkened, therefore, to a message sent him by Tyrone, who desired a conference; a cessation of arms was agreed to, and there was reason to suspect he had commenced an unjustifiable correspondence with the enemy.

So unexpected an issue of an enterprise, the greatest and most expensive that Elizabeth had ever undertaken, provoked her greatly against Essex, and she took care to inform him of her dissatisfaction, but commanded him to remain in Ireland until further orders.

But, fearing that if he remained any longer absent, the queen would be totally alienated from him, he immediately set out for England, and, making speedy journeys, he arrived at court before any one was in the least aware of his intentions.

Though besmeared with dirt from his journey, he hastened upstairs to the presence chamber, thence to the privy chamber, nor stopped till he was in the queen's bed-chamber, who was newly risen, and was sitting with her hair about her face. He threw himself on his knees, kissed her hand, and had some private conversation with her, where he was so graciously received that on his departure he was heard to express great satisfaction. But this placability of Elizabeth was merely the result of surprise and of the momentary satisfaction which she felt on the sudden and unexpected appearance of her favorite.

When Essex waited on her in the afternoon he found her greatly altered in her manner toward him. She ordered him to be confined to his apartments and to be examined by the council, and, though his answers were calm and submissive, she committed him to the custody of Lord Keeper Egerton, and kept him separate from all company, even from that of his countess.

The queen had often expressed her intentions of having him tried by the star chamber, but her tenderness for him prevailed at last over her severity, and she was content to have him examined before the privy council. They deprived him of all his offices, and sentenced him to return to his own house, there to remain a prisoner till it should please her majesty to release him. Sir Robert Cecil, the younger son of Burleigh, who was now secretary, used all his influence to ruin Essex, who was soon set at liberty, but not allowed to appear at court.

He now gave entire reins to violent disposition, and threw off all appearance of duty and respect. He secretly courted the confidence of the Catholics, but his chief trust lay in the Puritans, whom he openly caressed, and whose manners he seemed to have entirely adopted. He engaged the most celebrated preachers of that sect to resort to Essex House, and had daily prayers and sermons in his family, and he invited all the zealots in London to attend those pious exercises. He also indulged himself in great liberties of speech, and was even heard to say of the queen that she was now grown an old woman, and was become as crooked in her mind as in her body. These stories were carried to Elizabeth, who was ever very jealous on this head. Essex made secret applications to the King of Scotland, and assured him that he was determined to use every expedient for extorting an immediate declaration in favor of that monarch's right of succession.

Essex now resorted to more desperate counsels. A select council of malcontents was formed, by whom it was agreed that Essex should seize the palace, should oblige the queen to assemble Parliament, and should, with common consent, settle a new plan of government. The plot was discovered and Essex surrendered to the Earl of Nottingham. The queen soon gave orders for the trial of the most formidable of the criminals, and the Earls of Essex and Southampton were arraigned before a jury of twenty-five peers, by whom they were found guilty.

Essex made a full confession of his disloyalty, in which he spared not even his most intimate friends.

The present situation of Essex called forth all the queen's tender affections, and kept her in the greatest agitation and

irresolution. She signed the warrant for his execution; she countermanded it. She again resolved upon his death; she felt a new return of tenderness. What chiefly hardened her heart against him, was his supposed obstinacy in never making, as she hourly expected, any application to her for mercy; and she finally gave her consent to his execution.

He discovered at his death symptoms rather of penitence and piety than of fear, and acknowledged the justice of his sentence. He was executed February 25, 1601.

Henry IV. made a journey to Calais, and the queen went to Dover, in hope of having a personal interview with a monarch, whom, of all others, she most loved and respected, but being unable to pay her the visit, he sent the Duke de Sully as his ambassador. In this interview Elizabeth spoke of King James as her successor, who, she said, would be king of Great Britain. This title originated with her.

Elizabeth's last parliament met in October, 1601. It made great opposition to the oppressive monopolies she had granted, and she gracefully gave way, much to the astonishment of the house; they voted liberal supplies. The rebellion in Ireland was suppressed, and the Spaniards expelled by Lord Mountjoy, who succeeded in bringing order to that country.

In the early part of the year 1603 Elizabeth suffered from a complication of complaints, but her death is supposed to have been caused, or hastened, by melancholy brought on by a fatal secret, conveyed to her by the Countess of Nottingham in respect to a message from the Earl of Essex, sent the queen through that lady, just before his execution, and which her husband prevented her from delivering.

Her end approaching, a council was summoned, and, being assembled, sent three members to know her will with regard to her successor. She named her kinsman, James, King of Scotland; her voice soon after left her, and without a struggle she died on March 24th, in the seventieth year of her age, and forty-fifth of her reign.

Sir Robert Carey loitered in the court-yard of the palace of Richmond, and when at two o'clock in the morning, a light placed in a certain window was extinguished, signalling that the

queen was dead, he mounted his horse, and galloped off to Scotland, reached Edinburgh on the 28th, and saluted James as King of England.

Elizabeth's reign is justly considered one of the most important England has known. The Elizabethan age is one of the most brilliant epochs of English history, and the numerous statesmen, soldiers, scholars, and other intellectual personages who then existed, achieved for it a place in the annals of the world, that has never been surpassed. The leading events of her life are unquestionable. Of her personal character various and wholly diverse views have been formed. Froude, at the close of his history, thus sums up his judgment respecting her: "Her situation from the first was trying; her unlucky attachment for Leicester made marriage unconquerably distasteful to her; her disappointment gave an additional twist to her natural eccentricities. Circumstances, more than choice, threw her originally on the side of the reformation; she found herself compelled, against her will, to become the patron of rebels and heretics, in whose objects she had no interest, and in whose theology she had no belief. She resented the necessity, while she submitted to it, and her vacillations are explained by the reluctance with which each successive step was forced upon her, on a road which she detested. Her keenness of insight was not combined for any profound concern for serious things. She was without the intellectual emotions which give human character its consistency and power. One moral quality she possessed in an eminent degree: she was supremely brave; for thirty years she was perpetually the mark for assassination, and her spirits were never affected, and she was never frightened into cruelty. She had a proper contempt also for idle luxury and indulgence; she lived simply, worked hard, and ruled her household with rigid economy; but her vanity was insatiate and commonplace. Mercy was the quality with which she was most eager to be credited. Unlike her father who always struck the leaders and spared the followers, she could rarely bring herself to sign a death-warrant of a nobleman, yet without compunction she would order Yorkshire peasants to be hanged by scores, and she owed her safety and her success to the incapacity

and divisions of her enemies rather than to wisdom and to resolution of her own."

The many arbitrary acts of power exercised by the Tudors have, by some historians, been ascribed to an actual increase of the prerogative, nor can it be justly doubted that the crown gained an accession of strength under that dynasty. To be persuaded of this, we need only advert to the succession of the crown.

Under the early Plantagenets the notion was not altogether obsolete that the sovereign was, in a certain degree, elective, and the invariable right of succession in the eldest branch was not completely established till the reign of Edward I. But under Henry VIII. an act was passed empowering that monarch to bequeath the crown to whomsoever he pleased, even to one not of the blood royal.

So, too, an alteration was made in the coronation oath of Edward VI., and that prince was crowned as the rightful and undoubted heir before he had sworn to preserve the liberties of the realm, and without the consent of the people being asked to his accession.

This augmented power of the crown under the Tudors was not supported by military force, and seems to have rested mainly upon public opinion. Such a state of opinion was a natural consequence of the long and bloody wars of the Roses, which, being carried on merely for the choice of a sovereign, must have filled the public mind with an exaggerated idea of his personal importance.

The same wars, however, undoubtedly added to the material as well as to the ideal power of the crown. The great nobility were nearly exterminated by them, who had hitherto been the chief support of the people in their struggles with the throne. The nobles were further overawed and depressed by several severe and unjust executions, as those of the Earl of Warwick, the Earl of Suffolk, and the Duke of Buckingham, under Henry VIII., and of several others in the subsequent reigns. On the other hand, the dissolution of the monasteries and other encroachments upon the property of the church supplied Henry and his successors with funds to purchase the affection of the

nobles, and to attach them by the grateful bonds of self-interest.

Yet, in theory at least, the constitution remained intact, however it might sometimes be violated in practice. This is evident from several works written in the reign of Elizabeth, which represented the English constitution as a monarchy limited by law. The two chief privileges of Parliament, that of legislation and that of taxation, were regarded as indisputable. Henry VIII. procured, indeed, a statute to enable the king, on attaining the age of twenty-four, to repeal any acts passed since his accession, and another to give his proclamations the force of laws. Yet here the constitution is acknowledged in the very breach and suspension of it; for the king does not assume these powers, but has them conferred upon him by Parliament. On the other hand, the parliamentary right of taxation was sometimes evaded, or attempted to be evaded, by the crown.

The sovereigns of this period still continued to derive an income from some feudal rights; another source of income was the sale of pardons, and sometimes of bishoprics. The sovereign also enjoyed the means of rewarding his favorites and adherents by the erection of monopolies; that is, the granting of patents for the exclusive sale of certain articles. Toward the close of Elizabeth's reign this abuse had reached an intolerable height, and some of the most necessary articles of life, as salt, iron, calf-skins, train-oil, vinegar, coals, lead, paper, and a great many more, were in the hands of patentees.

Parliament was at length aroused, and some stormy debates ensued, and Elizabeth was obliged to promise that the monopolies complained of should be abolished; but it does not appear that her word was very strictly kept.

If we turn our attention from constitutional questions to the general state of the nation, we must, on the whole, pronounce the period of the Tudors to have been one of advancement and improvement. The arms and negotiations of Henry VIII., though not always well directed, extended English influence on the continent, and though this advantage was lost in the short and inglorious reign of Mary, which threatened to make Eng-

land a Spanish province, it was more than recovered under Elizabeth.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS. — Scotland: Mary, James VI.; France: Henry II., Francis II., Charles IX., Henry III., Henry IV.; Emperors of the West: Ferdinand I., Maximilian II., Rudolph II.; Spain: Philip I., Philip II.



THE HOUSE OF STUART.

A.D. 1603-1714.

THE House of Stuart originated with Walter, Lord High Steward of Scotland, who in the year 1315 married Margery, only daughter and presumptive heir of Robert Bruce, King of Scotland, by Gartheny, his queen, sister of the Earl of Mar.

The year following the marriage, Margery was travelling from Paisley to Renfrew Castle, and, being big with child, lost her life by a fall from a horse. The child, a son, was taken alive from her person by the Cæsarian mode; he lived, and on March 27, 1371, ascended the throne of Scotland as Robert II., and was the first monarch of the Stuart line.

On April 4, 1373, the Scottish Parliament passed a Bill of Succession; first to Robert's oldest son John, and his heirs; failing issue, then Robert's sons by his second marriage, and their heirs. Robert was succeeded by his son John, but that name being considered unfortunate he changed it, and in 1390 ascended the throne as Robert III. In 1405 he was succeeded by his second son as James I.; his great grandson, James IV., in 1502 married Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII. of England, by which marriage the Stuarts inherited the crown of England in the person of Queen Margaret's great grandson, James I., King of England.



James I.—A.D. 1603–1625.

Born at Edinburgh, June 19, 1566.

Crowned King of England, July 25, 1603.

Married Ann, daughter of Frederick II., King of Denmark, August 20, 1589.

Issue :

Henry Frederick, Prince of Wales, died æt. 19.

Charles, who succeeded to the throne.

Robert, Earl of Carrick.

Elizabeth, married Frederick V., Elector Palatine of the Rhine and King of Bohemia. Issue :

Charles Louis, whose daughter married Philip of Orleans, ancestor of King Louis Philippe.

Rupert, Duke of Cumberland—the Prince Rupert of the civil war.

Maurice.

Edward.

Philip.

Elizabeth, abbess.

Louisa, abbess.

Henrietta.

Sophia, married Ernest Augustus, Elector of Hanover, by whom she had issue :

George Louis, first King of England of line of Brunswick.

Frederic Augustus.

Maximilian.

Charles Philip.

Christian.

Ernest Augustus.

Sophia Charlotte.

Mary, born April 8, 1605, died 1607.

Sophia, born June 22, 1606, died next day.

JAMES I. of England and VI. of Scotland, son of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland, and Henry, Lord Darnley, was born in Edinburgh Castle, June 19, 1566. His reign commenced in Scotland the following year, when his mother, the queen, was

dethroned, and the power passed to the hands of the Protestant party. He resided in Stirling Castle for many years under the guardianship of the Earl of Mar, and his principal preceptor was George Buchanan, who, on being reproached for having made the king a pedant, declared it was the best he could make of him.

During his minority the contest between kingsmen and queensmen was bitterly waged, and the Earls of Murray, Lennox, Mar, and Morton were successively regents.

In the year 1577, on the overthrow of Morton, James assumed power, and the following year this assumption was confirmed by Parliament. He early exhibited that fondness for masculine favorites which has left a cloud on his name. He was seized by some of his nobility in the year 1582, but recovered his liberty and power, and banished his enemies; the latter returned in 1585, and forced the king to capitulate.

He repeatedly sought, but ineffectually, to save his mother's life when she had been sentenced to death in England.

In the year 1589 he made a voyage to Denmark, and married Anne, second daughter of Frederick II.

His reign was greatly disturbed by internal troubles between the nobles, clergy, and citizens of Edinburgh. He endeavored to restore episcopacy, but without success.

The crown of England was never transmitted from father to son with greater tranquillity than it passed from the house of Tudor to that of Stuart.

During the reign of Elizabeth the eyes of the whole people had been employed in search for her successor, and when old age made the prospect of her death more immediate, there appeared none but James, King of Scotland, who could advance any just claim or pretension to the crown.

He was the great grandson of Margaret, elder daughter of Henry VII., who married James IV., King of Scotland, and, on the failure of the male line, his hereditary right remained unquestionable. If the religion of his mother, Mary, Queen of Scots, as well as other prejudices, had caused an objection to her succession, these were entirely personal, and would not stand in regard to her son.

If the will of Henry VIII., confirmed by act of Parliament, had excluded the Scottish line, the tyranny and caprices of that monarch had been so marked, that a settlement of this nature, unsupported by any just reason, had no authority with the people. Queen Elizabeth, too, with her dying breath, had recognized the title of her kinsman James; and the whole nation seemed to prepare themselves with joy for his reception.

James was proclaimed king March 24, 1603. He left Edinburgh on April 5th following, and journeyed to London, his clumsy person and awkward manners making an unfavorable impression on his new subjects. On his arrival there, he found the nation in a flourishing condition, possessed of every advantage, except in the person of the king, who could not compare with his illustrious predecessor.

James had brought with him from Scotland a great number of his courtiers, whose impatience and importunity were apt, in many particulars, to impose on the easy nature of their master.

The Duke of Lennox, the Earl of Mar, Lords Hume and Kinross, Sir George Hume, and Secretary Elphinstone were immediately added to the Privy Council, and within six weeks after his arrival in London he is said to have conferred the order of knighthood on no less than two hundred and thirty-seven persons, and every one was sensible that the king, by his lavish and premature granting of favors, had lessened and injured the dignity of the order. It must, however, be acknowledged, in justice to him, that he left almost all the chief offices in the hands of Elizabeth's ministers.

Among these Secretary Cecil, created successively Lord Effington, Viscount Cranborne, and Earl of Salisbury, was always regarded as his Prime Minister and Chief Councillor.

The capacity of James and his councillors in negotiation was immediately put to trial, on the arrival of ambassadors from almost all the principal countries of Europe, to congratulate him on his accession.

He early made a treaty with Henry IV., King of France, for mutual defence against the King of Spain; this treaty was considered one of the wisest and most equitable made by James during the whole course of his reign.

Amidst the great tranquillity with which the nation was blessed, both at home and abroad, nothing could be more surprising than the discovery of a conspiracy to overturn the government, and to place Arabella Stuart on the throne.

She was a cousin of the king, daughter of the Duke of Lennox, and also descended from Henry VII. The principal conspirators were Lords Grey and Cobham, Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Griffin Markham, Sir Edward Parham, Messrs. Broke and Copeley, and two priests, Clarke and Watson. The conspiracy being discovered, the principals were tried and found guilty; the two priests and Broke were executed; Grey and Martin were pardoned after they had their heads on the block; Raleigh was reprieved and remained in prison thirteen years.

James called a conference of divines at Hampton Court, early in the year 1604, concerning points of faith and discipline, and tried to settle the dispute between the Church and the Puritans, but both parties separated with mutual dissatisfaction, the king being violently opposed to the latter, as he found them generally men of low birth, with a violent turn toward Republicanism.

The first parliament assembled on March 19, 1604, being long delayed on account of the plague which had broken out in London, thirty thousand persons having died of it in one year, though the city then contained only one hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants.

The chief matter which James presented in his speech to the House was a union between England and Scotland, an object which he had sincerely at heart, and which he thought might now be conveniently effected, since the two countries were now placed under the guidance of one sovereign.

Unfortunately, prejudices were entertained in both countries against the measure, and the parliaments of both kingdoms were prevailed upon to appoint a commission to meet in London, on the 20th of October following, and there consider the possibility of the union.

The first business the House brought forward was one of privilege, in respect to the return of members of that house, and the power of the crown. The king declared himself abso-

lute, but by the appointment of a committee by the House, to confer with the judges, before the king and his counsellors, the power he assumed appeared a little more doubtful than he had previously imagined it, and mutual concessions were made.

But the spirit of the time was changed; men's minds were becoming more enlightened, and the love of freedom was gaining strength. The severe but popular government of Elizabeth had confined this rising spirit, but with a king less dreaded, and less beloved, symptoms immediately appeared of a more free and independent spirit in the people.

James, of his own accord, called in and annulled the patents for monopolies, which had been granted by his predecessor, and which had fettered every species of domestic industry.

Peace was finally concluded with Spain, and the treaty was signed in London by the Spanish ambassador, August 18, 1604.

James, anticipating the meeting of commissioners, issued his proclamation on the 4th of October, 1604, in which he declared his will and pleasure, that the name of England and Scotland should be abolished, and the general name of Great Britain substituted for both. He also ordered that the cross of St. Andrew should take its place beside that of St. George, on the English flag, which was then called the Union Jack.

The gunpowder plot, in 1605, was caused by the disappointment of some Catholics who had been encouraged to hope for the mitigation of the penal laws under which they suffered. It originated with one Robert Catesby, a gentleman of good position, and of an ancient family, who opened his plan to Percy, a descendant of the illustrious house of Northumberland. They obtained the paid services of Guy Fawkes, a needy Yorkshire gentleman, who had been in the Spanish army. The intention was that on the opening of Parliament, November 5, 1605, the king, queen, members of the royal family, lords, and commons, should all be blown up by gunpowder. The plan became known through an anonymous letter sent to Lord Monteagle, a Roman Catholic peer, advising him not to attend the opening of the House. He showed the letter to the Secretary of State, the Earl of Salisbury, when a search was made, the powder was discovered under a pile of wood in the

cellars of the house, a train laid, and Guy Fawkes all ready, with the match fired, waiting for the signal. He was taken prisoner and tortured on the rack, but would not confess who were his accomplices. The other conspirators, to the number of eighty, hearing of the failure, escaped to Warwickshire, where they were soon surrounded, and Catesby, Percy, and some of the minor prisoners were killed, the others taken prisoners, tried, and executed.

This horrible project occasioned the passing of new laws, which made the condition of the Romanists worse than before.

The little concern which James took in foreign affairs rendered the domestic occurrences, particularly those of Parliament, the most interesting of his reign.

The complaints of the merchants were loud against Spanish depredations, and the Lower House sent a message to the Lords, desiring a conference on the subject, but before anything was done, the king prorogued Parliament.

An insurrection of the country people was raised in Northamptonshire, headed by one Reynolds, in 1607, but it was easily suppressed, and, though great lenity was shown to the rioters, some of the ringleaders were punished.

The following two years present nothing remarkable.

A session of Parliament was held February 9, 1610. The principal matter brought before the House was the granting of supplies. The Earl of Salisbury, now created Lord Treasurer, in asking for the grant, mentioned the numerous establishments the king was obliged to maintain for himself, the queen, and Prince Henry, and compared it with the court of Queen Elizabeth, a single woman, who had received much larger sums; he stated that the crown was burdened with a debt of £300,000, which necessitated an immediate and large supply from the people.

After much debate and great difficulty the House voted one-third the sum required.

Bills were passed by the Commons abolishing tonnage dues, the practice of borrowing money on privy seals, or the establishment of any ecclesiastical canon without the consent of Parliament, all of which were rejected by the Lords. Soon after James dissolved this, his first parliament, 1610.

The murder of King Henry IV. of France by the fanatical Ravaillac, on May 3, 1610, gave great alarm to England. With his death the glory of that monarchy suffered an eclipse for several years, it having fallen under an administration equally weak, bigoted, and factious.

James now boasted of his management of Ireland, and according to Sir John Davis he deserved some credit, as, after the subjection of that country under Elizabeth, the more difficult task still remained of civilizing the inhabitants and reconciling them to the laws. James proceeded in this work by a steady, regular, and well-concerted plan, and in the space of nine years made greater advances toward the reformation of that kingdom than had been made in the four hundred years since the conquest was first attempted.

The death of Henry, Prince of Wales, in his eighteenth year, November 6, 1612, caused universal grief throughout the kingdom. The same year two witches were burned at Smithfield, the last execution of this kind in England.

The marriage of the Princess Elizabeth with Frederick, Elector Palatine, was celebrated on February 14, 1614. That princess was the ancestress of the present British royal family.

In this reign the title of baronet was created. The Earl of Salisbury was dead, and the Earl of Suffolk, a man of small capacity, had succeeded to his office, and it was now his task to supply an exhausted treasury. The means he used was the sale of two hundred patents of that knighthood, each for the sum of £1,000. The ranks of nobility also had, each, its price affixed to it; loans were raised on privy seals to the amount of £200,000; "benevolences" were exacted to the amount of £52,000, and some monopolies were established. But all these expedients proved insufficient to supply the king's necessities, and he began to retrench his expenses.

A new parliament was summoned April 5, 1614, when, instead of entering on the business of supply, the House resumed the subjects which had been before the late parliament and rejected by the Lords; without completing any business, the king dissolved the House with great indignation on June 6, 1614.

At this time appeared at court a young gentleman, George Villiers, a younger son of a good family, who was appointed cup-bearer to the king; he soon became his favorite, and in the short space of one year, owing to the fall of Somerset, had attained to riches and honor.

James visited Scotland in May, 1617, in order to renew his old friendships and connections, and to introduce a change in the ecclesiastical discipline and government, but which he could not effect, and, dreading trouble, gave up the idea of reform.

In the year 1615 Sir Walter Raleigh was released from the Tower and allowed to make his voyage to the coast of Guiana. James refused to grant him a pardon, as he meant to hold his former sentence as a check on his future behavior.

Raleigh sailed for Guiana with a fleet and many adventurers in search of a mine on that coast. Arriving at the mouth of the river Orinoko, he sent a detachment under his son to St. Thomas, a town a few miles up the river, where they were attacked and young Raleigh killed; they carried on the attack and got possession of the town, but found no mine or treasure. The other adventurers now concluded they were deceived by Raleigh and determined to return home. The Spaniards demanded his punishment for the sacking and burning of St. Thomas, and to satisfy that court the king made use of that power he had reserved in his hands, and signed the warrant for Raleigh's execution upon his former sentence, and on October 29, 1618, he was beheaded.

Villiers was now created viscount, earl, and marquis, and, shortly after, Duke of Buckingham, Knight of the Garter, Master of the Horse, Warden of the Cinque Ports, and Constable of Windsor Castle.

James's foreign policy was now considered in England disgraceful, and caused much dissatisfaction there, particularly owing to the contract made with Elizabeth, and because when the thirty years' war broke out, though it involved the fate of his daughter and son-in-law Frederic, and they lost their dominions, becoming exiles and beggars, he would do nothing for them.

His Queen Anne died March 3, 1619, in the forty-fifth year of her age.

Parliament met June 6, 1621. The members seemed determined to sacrifice everything in order to maintain a good correspondence with the king, and being informed that he had remitted large sums to the Palatine, voted him two subsidies without a negative vote, and that, too, at the very beginning of the session.

They then in a temperate manner proceeded to the examination of grievances, which were soon redressed and extortionists punished. Encouraged by their success, the Commons carried their scrutiny into abuses of greater importance. The great seal was at that time held by the celebrated Bacon, a man universally admired for the greatness of his genius, but his want of economy and lavish expenditure had greatly involved him, and in order to supply his prodigality he was in the habit of taking bribes in the name of presents from suitors in Chancery. Complaints having reached the House of Commons he was impeached, tried, and found guilty; he was sentenced to pay a fine of £40,000, to be imprisoned in the Tower during the king's pleasure, and to be forever ineligible for any office or place in the gift of the government.

The Commons now entertained the idea that they were the great patrons of the people, and that the redress of all grievances must come from them, and in their zeal invaded the king's authority, which brought on a rupture between them. James having imprisoned a few of the leading members, prorogued the House, and soon afterward dissolved it by proclamation.

A leading object with the king was to conciliate Spain and obtain the hand of the Spanish Infanta for his son, the Prince of Wales. Other means having failed, Buckingham, who now ruled both king and prince, persuaded Prince Charles to proceed to Spain and urge his own suit there. This journey only led to disappointment, Buckingham having taken offence, and being, it is said, the cause of the marriage not taking place.

The hand of the Princess Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France, was now sought for Charles, and an alliance with that country against Austria was entered into. A

small force was sent to the continent to help the Protestant cause there, and this was followed by a larger one; but the first accomplished nothing, and of the second one-half of the men perished of the plague on board their ships, France and Holland not allowing them to land.

Buckingham's favor with the king was now lost, but he had great influence with the Prince of Wales; and the king falling sick, the duke and his mother were suspected of having poisoned him, but his death was really caused by tertian ague, acting on a constitution undermined by intemperance, chagrin, and mortification.

He died on March 27, 1625, in the fifty-ninth year of his age and the twenty-second year of his reign over England and thirty-sixth year over Scotland.

The most remarkable event of James's reign was the authorized translation of the Bible into English, which was done under his patronage and direction. He was a man of considerable learning, but his scholarship was deformed by the most offensive pedantry, as his writings were the grossest superstition, witches being the especial object of his fear, hatred, and persecution. He possessed many virtues, but scarcely any of them pure or free, as they were accompanied by corresponding vices. His generosity bordered on profusion, his wisdom on cunning, his friendship on light fancy, and boyish fondness. His capabilities were considerable, but fitter for general than intricate business. Awkward and ungainly, he was ill qualified to command respect; of a feeble temper rather than of a frail judgment. Upon the whole, it may be said of his character that all his qualities were sullied with weakness and embellished with humanity.

James left only one son, Charles, Prince of Wales, who succeeded him, and one daughter, Elizabeth, married to the Elector Palatine.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—France: Henry IV., Louis XIII.; Emperors of the West: Rudolph, Matthias, Ferdinand II.; Spain: Philip III., Philip IV.

Charles I.—A.D. 1625–1649.

Born at Dunfermline, Scotland, November 19, 1600.

Crowned February 2, 1626.

Married, May, 1626, Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France.

Issue:

Charles, Duke of Cornwall; born and died in 1628.

Charles, Prince of Wales.

James, Duke of York, who succeeded his brother as second of that name.

Henry, Duke of Gloucester.

Mary, born November 6, 1631; married William II., Prince of Orange, by whom she left one son, William Henry, afterward William III.

Elizabeth.

Anne.

Henrietta.

CHARLES, second son of James I. and his queen, Anne of Denmark, was born at Dunfermline, Fifeshire, Scotland, November 19, 1600.

He became heir apparent to the crown of England on the death of his brother, Henry, November 6, 1612, and was created Prince of Wales four years after.

He early fell under the influence of his father's favorite, the Duke of Buckingham, and in 1623 went with him, incognito, to Madrid, to confirm his marriage with the Infanta of Spain. They travelled under the names of John and Thomas Smith, and arrived at the house of the Earl of Bristol, the English ambassador there, on March 7th.

He was received by King Philip with the greatest consideration. He conferred on him the golden key of the palace, and accorded him the pomp and ceremony due to the kings of Spain. The Infanta, however, was only shown to the prince in the presence of the court, Spanish ideas not allowing any nearer intercourse until receipt of a dispensation of marriage from the Pope.

A marriage treaty was soon concluded, in which nothing could be found fault with, except the arrangement concerning the education of the children, which was inserted by the Pope, Gregory XV. He soon after died, and Urban VIII., his successor, delayed sending a new dispensation, in hope of extorting fresh concessions. As a further impediment, the condition was

imposed that the Infanta should remain a year in Spain after her marriage.

Charles chafed against these restrictions. Month after month passed away and he was no nearer the attainment of his object. King James also became impatient. On the first hint, Charles obtained permission to return, and Philip attended his departure with the same ceremony with which he had received him. But Charles felt deep resentment, in which he was encouraged by Buckingham, out of spite for the neglect he had received, and Charles fully determined to break the treaty. He reached England October 5th. James, finding his son opposed to the match, which had always been repugnant to his people and Parliament, yielded to difficulties which he could not overcome.

This early enterprise was most unfortunate as being the beginning of that course of dissimulation and insincerity which was the great defect of Charles's whole career. There was great joy in England when the match was broken off. Buckingham assumed the credit of the deed, and soon arranged a marriage with the Princess Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV., King of France, and his second wife, Maria de Medici.

James I. died before the marriage was ratified, but on March 30th, three days after the accession of Charles, the ratification took place, and they were married by proxy at Notre Dame, Paris, on June 12th, and a few days after the queen was received by Charles at Dover. They journeyed to Canterbury, where the marriage was consummated. Owing to the prevalence of the plague in London, they took up their residence at Hampton Court.

The marriage was an inauspicious one. All its influences, both social and political, were of evil consequences to both the king and the kingdom.

Charles was proclaimed king March 27, 1625. His first act was to issue writs for a new parliament to meet on June 18th, at Westminster, for the despatch of business.

At the close of the last reign twelve thousand men, under Mansfield, were levied in England, and sent over to Holland, which had renewed the war with Spain.

The speech from the throne, on the opening of Parliament, was full of simplicity and cordiality. The king mentioned lightly the occasion he had for supply, and employed no intrigue to influence the members. He resolved that their liberality should be entirely their own deed, unasked and unsolicited, the genuine fruit of their confidence and regard.

The House accordingly entered upon the business of supply. They knew that the money granted by the last Parliament had been expended on naval and military armaments; they were aware that Charles was loaded by a great debt, contracted by his father; they were sensible that the present war was the result of their own entreaties, and that they solemnly engaged to support their sovereign in the management of it; and they were well acquainted with the difficulty of military operations, conducted against such powerful enemies, particularly Ferdinand, the most fortunate monarch of his age.

To answer, therefore, all the great and important ends; to satisfy their young king in the first request he had made them, the House of Commons, conducted by the wisest and ablest senators that had ever flourished in England, thought proper to grant a supply for the paltry sum of £112,000.

This measure, which shows a cruel mockery, rather than a serious intention of supporting the king, appears so extraordinary when considered in all its circumstances. As the parliament was composed of persons of various conditions, it is not probable they were influenced by the same motives, and few declared openly their true reasons, and it is not doubted that ill-will against the Duke of Buckingham had an influence with many. The Puritanical party, though disguised, had now a great power throughout the kingdom, and many of the leaders in the Commons had secretly embraced the strict tenets of that sect. All these were disgusted with the court and the established hierarchy, on account of the restraint under which they were held.

The House of Commons was now governed by a set of men of great capacity, who were now formed into a regular party, and united as well by fixed aims as by the hardships which many of them had undergone in the prosecution of them.

Among these were Sir Edward Coke, Sir Edwin Sandys, Sir Robert Philips, Sir Francis Seymore, Sir Dudley Digges, Sir John Eliot, Sir Thomas Wentworth, Mr. Selden, and Mr. Pym. Animated with a warm regard for liberty, these patriots saw with regret the great power exercised by the crown, and were resolved to seize the opportunity of the king's necessities, and reduce his prerogative within a more reasonable compass; and they now beheld the king involved in a foreign war, which rendered him every day more dependent on the Parliament, while at the same time the situation of the kingdom, even without any military preparations, gave it sufficient security against invasion.

The lofty ideas of monarchical power was firmly riveted in Charles, and he regarded the conduct of the house as but one degree removed from open sedition and rebellion. The plague now raged in London, and Parliament adjourned on July 11th, to meet in Oxford on August 1st, where he made another attempt to gain from them a new supply. But the Commons remained inexorable, although the king departed from his exclusiveness, and gave the house full particulars of the alliances he had formed and the operations he projected.

Parliament renewed their complaints against the growth of popery, and demanded a strict execution of the penal laws. Charles, though a determined Protestant, entertained no violent horror against popery, and thought some humanity was due from the nation to the religion of their ancestors; an abatement of the more rigorous laws was all he intended, and his engagements with France required some indulgence.

Finding that Parliament was resolved to grant him no supply, the king took advantage of the plague appearing at Oxford, and, on that pretence, dissolved the house on August 12th.

To supply the want of parliamentary aid, Charles issued privy seals and borrowed money, by which means he equipped his fleet and carried on the war with Spain.

On February 6, 1626, a second Parliament was called. It was as unready to vote money as the former one; Buckingham was impeached, and before it had perfected any one act it was dissolved, and more money was raised on royal authority. In

order to equip a fleet, a distribution was made, by an order in council, on all maritime towns; each of them was required to arm so many vessels as were allotted them; the city of London was rated at twenty ships.

Charles now plunged into a war with France, and tried to carry on both wars by benevolences and forced loans, but all were inadequate, and he was at length obliged to call a third Parliament, which met March 17, 1628.

The members of this house appeared to be of the same independent spirit as their predecessors, and possessed of great riches; they were sent by boroughs and counties, incensed all of them by the violations of liberty. In this body the opposition was stronger than ever; they framed a petition of right, which claimed that the king should not levy taxes, except with consent of Parliament, nor subject the people to trials by court martial, nor imprison any subject unless by due process of law. Upon assent of this was conditional any grant of money. Charles at length agreed to this petition, and there was great rejoicing among the people; but after getting the money voted he imprisoned Eliot and other distinguished members of the house. In the meantime the English arms were covered with disgrace; the Earl of Denbigh, having declined to attack the French fleet, was accused of cowardice.

The king still persisted in retaining Buckingham at the head both of his council and of his army, and that favorite was on the point of setting sail from Portsmouth, at the head of an expedition for the coast of France, when he was assassinated by one Felton, who had served under him as a captain. When the king was informed of the assassination, he appeared at heart not displeased to be rid of a minister so generally disliked by the nation.

The expedition sailed under the Earl of Lindsey, but was too late and too inefficient to relieve La Rochelle, which, after having had the most positive assurance of relief from Charles, and after incredible sufferings, was obliged to surrender. Of fifteen thousand persons shut up in the city, four thousand only survived the fatigue and famine they had undergone.

The failure of an enterprise in which the English nation, from

religious sympathy, so much interested themselves, could not but diminish the king's authority in the Parliament during the approaching session, but the Commons, when assembled, found many other causes of complaint. The House met on January 20, 1629, and immediately commenced the business, by stating their general dissatisfaction. Mainwaring's pardon and promotion were taken notice of. Sibthorpe and Couzins, two clergymen, who for like reasons, were no less obnoxious to the Commons, had met with like favor from the king; Montague, who had been censured for moderation toward the Catholics, the greatest of crimes, had been created Bishop of Chichester; and all the copies of the petition of right, which were distributed, had, by the king's orders, annexed to them the first answer, which had given so little satisfaction to the Commons, whereby he endeavored to persuade the people that he had in no way receded from his former claims and pretensions with regard to levying of tonnage and poundage.

A remonstrance was framed against the levying of such tax unless by consent of Parliament, and offered to the clerk to read. It was refused, Sir John Eliot, the proposer, read it himself; the question being then called for, the Speaker said that he had a command from the king to adjourn and put no question, upon which he rose and left the chair. The whole House was in an uproar. The Speaker was pushed back into the chair, and forcibly held in it by two members until a short remonstrance was framed, and passed by acclamation. Papists and Arminians were there declared enemies to the commonwealth; those who levied tonnage and poundage were branded with the same epithet.

The doors being locked, the Gentleman Usher of the House of Lords, who was sent by the king, could not get admittance until the remonstrance was finished. By the king's order he took the mace from the table, which ended their proceedings, and a few days afterward Parliament was dissolved.

Charles, naturally disgusted with parliaments, who, he found, were determined to proceed against him with unmitigated vigor, both in invading his prerogative and refusing him all supply, resolved not to call any more until he could see

greater indications of a more compliant disposition in the nation.

But being now without supply he was obliged to make peace with France and Spain. The latter power, to regain the goodwill of England, released and sent home all the prisoners taken in the expedition against Cadiz, which example was imitated by France after the retreat of the English from the Isle of Rhé.

England's foreign relations were now in a satisfactory condition, and the affairs of Europe were so equally divided between the rival houses of Austria and Bourbon, whose opposite interests and mutual jealousies secured the tranquillity of Great Britain, and during the remainder of Charles's reign, he seems to have little regarded foreign affairs.

After the death of Buckingham, who had somewhat alienated Charles from his queen, she is to be considered his chief friend and favorite; he was a kind husband, an indulgent father, a gentle master, a steadfast friend. As a monarch, in his exterior qualities, he excelled, but the high idea of his own authority, which he had imbibed from his father, made him incapable of giving way to the spirit of liberty, which then began to prevail among his subjects.

He now adopted the principle, that whenever popular leaders encroach too much on royal authority, some office of power should be conferred upon them, believing that they would then become more careful not to diminish that power which had become their own; a sure proof that a secret revolution had happened, that necessitated him to adopt such a change in the government.

This was the case with Sir Thomas Wentworth, a Puritan member of the late house, whom the king first created a baron, then viscount, and afterward Earl of Strafford, and regarded him as his first minister and chief councillor.

In all ecclesiastical affairs, and even in civil, Laud, Bishop of London, and afterward Archbishop of Canterbury, had great influence over the king, and his object was to lead the nation back by gradual steps to the religion of their ancestors.

And Strafford, a man of great ability but of unscrupulous character, resolved to make Charles, in fact, the absolute monarch

he claimed to be, and he saw the means to this end was a standing army.

Charles issued a proclamation in which he declared, that owing to the abuse of the late parliaments, he was unwillingly obliged to do without their services for a time, and he would consider it presumption for any one to prescribe to him, at any time, the calling of that assembly.

This was generally considered as a declaration that during his reign no more parliaments were intended to be called. Tonnage and poundage continued to be levied by royal authority alone.

The militia of each county were ordered to be kept in good order and sufficient strength, by an order in Council. Compositions were openly made with the recusants and Romish religion, and formed a part of the revenue. A commission was appointed for compounding with such as were possessed of crown lands, upon defective titles; and upon this pretence much money was exacted from the people. Knighthoods were sold, and money was raised in every conceivable way. The star chamber increased and extended its authority, and it was a matter of complaint, that it encroached upon the jurisdiction of other courts.

Charles made a journey to Scotland, June 12, 1633, attended by his court, in order to hold a parliament there, and to pass through the ceremony of his coronation. In the year 1634 ship-money was first introduced over the whole kingdom, for the purpose of building a navy, the effect of which soon appeared; a formidable fleet of sixty sail, the greatest that England had ever known, was equipped, under the Earl of Northumberland, who had orders to attack the herring busses of the Dutch, who fished in what were called the British seas. The Dutch were content to pay £30,000 for a license during this year, but denied the claim of England's dominion in the sea beyond the Frith's bays and shores.

In 1637 many Puritans restrained in England sailed for America, and laid there the foundation of a government which possessed all the civil and religious liberty they found themselves deprived of in their native land.

Eight ships lying in the Thames, and ready to sail, were de-

tained by order of the Council, and in these were embarked, Sir Arthur Hazelrig, John Hampden, John Pym, and Oliver Cromwell, who had resolved forever to abandon their native country. The king had afterward full leisure to repent this exercise of his authority.

The Scottish people, on whom Charles attempted, at the instigation of Laud, to force episcopacy upon, arose in arms to assert their liberty, and subscribed the National Covenant. Charles raised an army of twenty thousand men, under command of the Earl of Arundel, and on its arrival at Berwick on May 29, 1639, was joined by the king, attended by a splendid retinue.

The two armies were about of equal force, and the leaders of the malcontents sent submissive messages to the king, and craved an adjustment of their troubles. Charles knew the force of the Covenanters was considerable, and their courage great, their zeal furious; and, on the other hand, his army was entirely composed of mercenary troops, without discipline, and fearing a defeat, he concluded a pacification, in which it was stipulated that he should withdraw his army; and within eight-and-forty hours the Scots should dismiss their forces, and that a Parliament and a General Assembly be immediately summoned in order to settle all differences.

As soon as Charles concluded this peace, his want of money obliged him to disband his army, and as his soldiers were held together solely by mercenary views, it was not possible, without great trouble and loss of time, to again assemble them.

On August 17, 1639, the General Assembly met in Edinburgh; they voted episcopacy unlawful in Scotland, and stigmatized the liturgy and canons as popish. The Parliament which sat there after the assembly were proceeding to ratify the acts of the assembly, when, by the king's instructions, Traquaire, the Lord High Commissioner, prorogued them.

Charles, with great difficulty, found means to draw together another army, but soon discovered that all his money was gone and great debts contracted, and his revenue would be insufficient to support them; and he found that an English Parliament, formerly so unkind and intractable—and after an inter-

mission of eleven years, and after his having tried so many irregular methods—must at last be summoned to aid him in his necessities. Parliament was therefore called, and on April 13, 1640, met at Westminster; but as it commenced, like the last one, first to consider grievances, he dissolved it on May 5th, after a sitting of eighteen days, and before it gave any positive reply to his demand for supplies.

Tyranny in church and state was now at its worst. Torture was inflicted for the last time in this year.

The Lord High Commissioner Traquaire had intercepted a letter written to the King of France by the Scottish malcontents, which he forwarded to Charles, and he, glad of the opportunity, made this the cause of breaking with the Covenanters, and was determined this time to subdue them. He raised an army of twenty thousand men with great difficulty, and appointed the Earl of Northumberland to command them. They were met by the Scotch at Newburn-on-Tyne, and utterly defeated. A panic seized the English army; they fled to Durham, and, not yet thinking themselves safe, deserted that town, and retreated into Yorkshire, August 28th.

The Scotch took possession of Newcastle, and, though sufficiently elated with their victory, preserved great discipline, and paid for everything required. They also sent messengers to the king, who had arrived at York, expressing their loyalty, duty, and submission to his person. Charles was in a very distressed condition, the army discouraged and discontented, the treasury exhausted, and every expedient for supply tried to the uttermost, and, in order to prevent the advance of the Scots, he agreed to a treaty at Ripon; but difficulties occurring, it was proposed to transfer the negotiations to London, which was agreed to by both parties. And having convoked a council of the great peers at York, they demanded the calling of a parliament to inquire into the state of the realm and treat with the Scottish rebels.

A new parliament was called, and on November 3, 1640, assembled the body known as the Long Parliament. Both houses were resolute in resistance to despotic power, and the first act of the Commons was to impeach both Strafford and

Laud, who were committed to the Tower. Other members of the ministry, finding the scrutiny of the Commons pointed toward them, fled to France.

Thus, in a few weeks, the House of Commons, seconded by the peers, had produced quite a revolution in the government. The bishops were next attacked, and orders issued for the removal and demolishing of all altars, images, and crucifixes. A committee was appointed by the Lower House as a court of inquiry into the habits and duties of the clergy. This committee continued several years, and exercised an arbitrary power. Triennial parliaments were then established, making it obligatory on the chancellor to issue writs of election on September 3d of every third year.

The Earl of Strafford was brought to trial March 28, 1641. Articles of impeachment, twenty-eight in number, were brought against him, and after a trial of eighteen days the Commons saw it impossible, by legal prosecution, to obtain a sentence against him. A bill of attainder was therefore brought into the Lower House, charging Strafford with pernicious councils to the king in the performance of illegal acts, on which he was found guilty and executed.

Some just and salutary laws were now passed, some illegal practices, which had been usual with the latter English monarchs, were repressed, some grievances redressed, some rights of the subject firmly established.

A bill was also passed demanding that Parliament should not be dissolved except with its own consent; this act was unconstitutional, but was approved of by the king.

The Star Chamber and High Commission was abolished, and the House voted to consider the question of the militia.

The arrears of the Scotch army were fully paid and they returned home, and the English army dispersed into their several counties and dismissed.

The Princess Mary, the king's eldest daughter, was married to William Prince of Orange. This was the commencement of the connection with that family, which was afterward attended with such important consequences to the kingdom.

A conspiracy was formed by Roger More for expelling the

English and declaring the independence of his native country, Ireland, and it was arranged the insurrection should begin on the same day all over the island, and should attack all the English settlements; succors and supplies of arms were expected from France and Spain. News, which every day arrived from England, of the fury expressed by the Commons against all papists, stimulated the conspirators and gave them hopes of the assistance of all their countrymen. The night before the rising, October, 1641, one O'Connally betrayed the conspiracy in Dublin, which saved the castle and Protestants in that city. But in Ulster the conspirators, headed by their priests, commenced a universal massacre; no age, no condition, no sex was spared; death was the slightest punishment inflicted by those rebels. All the tortures which wanton cruelty could devise, all the lingering pains of body could not satisfy their revenge; even women and children emulated the men in the practice of every cruelty. The Irish, ingenious in their barbarity, tempted their prisoners, by the promise of life, to imbrue their hands in the blood of their friends and relations, and then laughingly put them to death. Even the cattle which they had seized, and had become their own property, they wantonly slaughtered or covered with wounds, because they bore the hated English name. Amidst all those enormities the sacred name of religion resounded on every side—not to stop the hands of these murderers, but to enforce their blows and steel their hearts against the English; heretics, abhorred of God and detestable to all holy men, were marked out by the priests for slaughter. From Ulster the flames of rebellion spread over the whole of Ireland, but the people pretended to act with moderation. They expelled the English from their homes, robbed them of their manors, devastated their fields, stripped them of their very clothes, and turned them out, naked and defenceless, to meet the severity of the season, to starve and die, and it is said over two hundred thousand suffered.

Charles, sensible of his inability to subdue the Irish rebels, was obliged to have recourse to Parliament.

On January 2, 1642, the king sent his refusal to the Commons to appoint a guard for their security, but promised solemnly,

upon his word as a king, that their security should be his sacred care. But next day his Attorney-General appeared at the bar of the House of Lords, and in the king's name accused of high treason Lord Kimbolton and five members of the Commons.

They were charged with an attempt to subvert the fundamental laws, and to deprive the king of his regal power; he demanded their arrest, and the next day came to the House in person to arrest them by armed force, but the five members had absented themselves by permission of the House.

The excitement in Parliament and the city was unparalleled. Some of the king's partisans wished to seize the six members who were known to be in a house in Coleman Street, but he chose to demand them from the Common Council, and on January 8th issued a proclamation for their arrest.

The unpopularity of his cause made his friends fear for his personal safety, and on January 10th he left the Palace of Whitehall for Hampton Court.

The following week the accused members were brought back with the enthusiasm of a popular triumph, and the rupture between the king and Parliament seemed complete.

Parliament passed a Militia Act which amounted to an Army Act, and Charles sent his queen to Holland, February 16, 1642, with the crown jewels, to raise troops against the Parliament.

On April 23d the king virtually began the war by attempting to force an entrance into the city of Hull. The military governor, Hotham, kept him out, and his action was approved by Parliament.

The queen, disposing of the crown jewels in Holland, had been enabled to purchase a cargo of arms and ammunition, part of which had safely arrived with the king. Parliament still sent conditions to Charles, but their demand amounted to a total abolition of monarchical authority. War on any terms was esteemed by the king and his counsellors preferable to so ignominious a peace. Collecting some forces, he marched to Nottingham on August 25, 1642, and erected his royal standard, the open signal of discord and civil war throughout the kingdom.

When two names so sacred to the British Constitution as

those of king and parliament were placed in opposition, no wonder the people were divided in their choice. The nobility and principal gentry, dreading utter confusion of rank from the fury of the populace, enlisted themselves in defence of their monarch. The city of London, on the other hand, and most of the great corporations took part with the Parliament.

The royalist members of Parliament vacated their seats and joined the king; the rest no longer tried to pass acts for the king's approval, but passed ordinances.

On September 9th, Parliament published a declaration of the causes of the war, and on the 19th the king issued his protestation, promising to respect the freedom of Parliament, and declaring his purposes.

All the different bodies of the parliamentary army were now ordered to march and rendezvous at Northampton, and the Earl of Essex, who commanded, found them to number fifteen thousand men. The king, finding he had no army to cope with such a force, thought it prudent to retire to Derby, thence to Shrewsbury, in order to collect the levies which were making in those parts.

On mustering his army, Charles found it numbered ten thousand men. It was commanded by the Earl of Lindsey, and on October 12th he left Shrewsbury, determined to give battle as soon as possible to the army of the Parliament, which he heard was continually augmenting, and on the 23d both armies met at Edgehill, where a battle was fought, and without decided advantage to either side. After fighting all day, Essex was the first to withdraw unpursued by the royalists; the king returned to his former quarters. Five thousand men are said to have been left dead on the field, and the loss of the two armies about equal.

While both armies were kept inactive by the winter season, the king and Parliament were employed in real preparations for war; in the meantime negotiations were carried on, but without success.

The spring campaign opened on April 15th by the siege of Reading, which was invested by Essex and an army of eighteen thousand men. It fell on the 27th. Charles was more suc-

cessful in the west. Bristol surrendered to Prince Rupert, July 25th; Hampton was killed, and the parliamentary cause seemed weak and discouraged, and had the royalists now been united and prompt, they might have triumphed and utterly overthrown the popular party.

Parliament now exerted to their utmost their power and authority; they even employed the expedient of impressment, so as to raise a formidable army. Fourteen thousand men were raised, with which Essex marched to meet the king, and on September 29th both armies met at Newbury, where a stubborn battle was fought, but without any decided advantage to either. Next morning Essex returned to London. The remodelling of the parliamentary army followed; Cromwell and Fairfax became its generals, and a discipline was introduced by the former as perfect as that of any modern service, and a spirit of religious enthusiasm which equalled or surpassed the loyalty and chivalry of the cavaliers. The English Parliament had also sent commissioners to Edinburgh with powers to treat for a nearer union and confederacy with the Scottish nation, and a solemn league and covenant was formed, which effaced all former protestations and vows taken in both kingdoms, and long maintained its credit and authority.

In this covenant, the subscribers, besides engaging mutually to defend one another against all opponents, bound themselves to endeavor, without respect of persons, to extirpate popery and prelacy, superstition, heresy, schism, and profaneness; to maintain the rights and privileges of Parliament, together with the king's authority, and to discover and bring to justice all incendiaries and malignants.

The Scotch had thus obtained what they had long been aiming at—the establishment of Presbyterianism as the dominant religion in the United Kingdom, and the extirpation by authority of Episcopacy. As the Scotch made the acceptance of Presbyterianism the condition of their assistance, the Commons made no scruple of violating the religious liberty of the nation.

The English Parliament having first subscribed the covenant themselves, ordered it to be received by all who lived under their authority. They expelled from their preferments the

whole body of the Episcopal clergy, and bestowed them on their own partisans among the Presbyterians.

The Scotch, having received £100,000, were now prepared to carry conviction by the sword, and by the end of the year 1643 were ready to enter England with an army of twenty thousand men, under their old general, the Earl of Leven.

The winter campaign proved unfavorable to the king in all quarters. On the opening of summer, Leven and Fairfax united their armies and laid siege to York, which was soon reduced to extremity, when, on a sudden, Prince Rupert advanced to its relief, July 1, 1644, with an army of twenty thousand men. The Scotch and parliamentary armies raised the siege, and drawing up on Marston Moor, prepared to give battle to the royalists, and the following day two battles were fought, and Prince Rupert's army was utterly defeated. This event was a great blow to the king, and fatal in its consequences.

York surrendered a few days afterward. Fairfax, remaining in the city, established his government over the whole county. The town of Newcastle was taken by the Earl of Leven on October 29th.

While those events happened in the north, the king's affairs in the south, where Ruthven, Earl of Brentford, commanded, were conducted with more success. Charles joined this force, and defeated the Parliamentary army at Cropredy Bridge, under Waller. He then marched westward against Essex, whom he shut up in Cornwall, deprived of forage and supplies, but reinforcements were sent to his relief under Cromwell and Manchester, and the royalist army was defeated on November 9th, at Newbury. The king retired to Wallingford, thence to Oxford, where he was joined by Prince Rupert and the Earl of Northampton, with a considerable force of cavalry.

On June 14, 1645, the decisive battle of Naseby was fought, where the royal cause was totally overthrown, and the royal army dispersed. After some attempts at negotiations, marked by the usual insincerity on both sides, neither party daring to trust the other, Charles delivered himself up to the Scotch at Newark; the army afterward moved to Newcastle. The Scot-

tish generals would enter into no confidence with him, but required him to issue orders to Oxford and all his other garrisons, commanding their surrender to Parliament, and the king, knowing that their resistance was now of little purpose, complied.

The Scots concurred with the English in imposing severe conditions on the king, which, notwithstanding his unfortunate situation, he refused to accept; it is certain they did not desire his freedom. To carry him a prisoner into Scotland, where few forces could be supported to guard him, was a measure of inconvenience and danger, and how could such a plan be supported in opposition to England? But, in the end, the Scotch commissioners determined to hold the king as a pledge for the arrears they claimed from England, and which they were not likely to obtain in any other way. The sum, by their account, amounted to £2,000,000, as they had received little pay since they had entered England.

After many discussions between the commissioners of both countries, it was agreed that for the sum of £400,000, in lieu of all demands, Charles should be delivered up to the Parliament, and an everlasting disgrace upon the commissioners concerned was the consequence.

The king, being delivered up to the English commissioners, was conducted, under guard, to Holmby, in Northamptonshire, January 30, 1647, where his confinement was very rigorous.

Cromwell, who as yet entertained no definite views, was prepared to play the part afterward assumed by Monk: yet even now, when terms were offered the king by the Independents, he refused to concede anything.

Charles's imprisonment was varied—sometimes in the hands of the army, then of the Parliament. He succeeded in escaping to the Isle of Wight, where he was treacherously given up to Cromwell, who was now master of both army and Parliament.

The army had been successful in the north, and subdued all their enemies, and none remained but the helpless king and the Parliament to oppose their violent measures. That body had been in treaty with Charles, and had agreed to mutual concessions, by a vote of the House, and were about to proceed upon the settlement of the government on the following day.

When the Commons were to meet, Colonel Pride, formerly a drayman, surrounded the House with two regiments, and seized two hundred members of the Presbyterian party, who were favorable to the king, and none were allowed to enter but the most furious of the Independents, who did not number over sixty members, when they reversed the former proceedings.

A remonstrance was drawn by a council of general officers, at Cromwell's suggestion, and sent to Parliament, demanding the punishment of the king for the blood spilt during the civil wars, and requiring a dissolution of Parliament. A committee was appointed to bring a charge against him, and a vote passed declaring him guilty of treason, and a high court of justice named. This vote was sent to the House of Peers, which was, without one dissenting vote, rejected, and they adjourned their House for ten days.

The Commons were not to be stopped by so small an obstacle, but immediately commenced to constitute the court. It consisted of one hundred and thirty-three persons, but many refused to take part in the proceedings. The judges declining to sit, one Bradshaw, a lawyer, was chosen president, and Cook was appointed solicitor for the people. The court sat in Westminster Hall.

The solicitor, in the name of the people, represented that Charles Stuart, being admitted King of England, and intrusted with a limited power, yet nevertheless, from a wicked design to erect an unlimited and tyrannical government, had traitorously and maliciously levied war against the present Parliament, and the people whom they represented, and was therefore impeached as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and a public and implacable enemy to the Commonwealth.

The king was then called on to answer, and he declined to submit to the jurisdiction of the court; three times was he brought before the court, and as often denied its jurisdiction. On the fourth day, the 25th of January, the judges examined some witnesses, by whom it was proved that the king had appeared in arms against the forces commissioned by Parliament, and on the 27th they found him guilty of treason, and pronounced sentence of death against him.

The Scotch protested against the proceedings; the Dutch interceded in the king's behalf, but all solicitations were fruitless with men whose resolutions were irrevocable.

Three days were allowed the king between his sentence and execution, which he passed in reading and devotional exercises. All his family that remained in England were allowed access to him. On the 30th of January, 1649, in front of the Palace of Whitehall, he was beheaded, in the forty-eighth year of his age, and twenty-fourth year of his reign.

Charles left by his queen, Henrietta, three sons and three daughters: Charles, Prince of Wales, born 1630; James, Duke of York, born 1633; Henry, Duke of Gloucester, born 1634; Mary, Princess of Orange, born 1631; Elizabeth, born 1635; Henrietta, afterward Duchess of Orleans, born 1644.

Charles was of fine presence, was of a sweet, but melancholy countenance; his face was regular and handsome, his complexion good. His body, strong and healthy, was well proportioned, and, being of middle stature, he was enabled to undergo great fatigue. He excelled in horsemanship and other exercises, and possessed all the essential qualities which form an accomplished prince. His great misfortune was a distrust of his own judgment, and a habit of deferring to others of ability inferior to his own. This often made him waver and change his resolution, not unfrequently for the worse, but always with the disadvantage of disappointing those who advised him and of appearing insincere.

In a few days the Commons passed votes to abolish the House of Peers and the monarchy as useless parts of the government, and they ordered a new great seal on which was engraved the legend:—"On the first year of Freedom, by God's blessing restored, 1648." The forms of all public business was changed from the king's name to that of the keepers of the liberties of England. It was declared high treason to proclaim, or any otherwise acknowledge Charles Stuart, commonly called Prince of Wales.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—France: Louis XIII., Louis XIV.; Emperors of the West: Ferdinand II., Ferdinand III.; Spain: Philip IV.

Interregnum—1649-1660.

EVEN before the murder of the king, Parliament had shrunk into a mere name, but it was the pleasure of Cromwell, the leader, to have an instrument to do his work, and make themselves odious. At first all was obedience to the men of the sword, at their bidding it was treason to give the title of king to any one; they ordered the royal statues and arms to be thrown down; made themselves a new great seal; abolished the House of Lords, and the kingly office; appointed a council of state of forty-one members, with the regicide Bradshaw as president; but the real head was Cromwell. It was he, and not his nominal masters, who conquered Scotland and Ireland, forced the proud courts of France and Spain to receive ambassadors from men stained with royal blood, and humbled the powerful Dutch Republic.

The king's death was received throughout Europe with a thrill of horror. The Czar of Russia sent the English ambassador from his court. The ambassador of France was withdrawn from London on the proclamation of the Republic. The Protestant powers of the continent seemed more anxious than any to disavow all connection with the Protestant people, who had brought a king to the block. Holland took the lead in acts of open hostility to the new power as soon as the news of execution reached the Hague. The States General waited on the Prince of Wales, who took the title of Charles II., and recognized him as "majesty," while they refused an audience to the English envoy.

Cromwell passed over to Ireland, August, 1649, with a large army. He stormed Drogheda and Wexford, putting every defender to the sword, as well women and priests, in retaliation for their own acts. He then marched south, where as stout a defence was followed by as terrible a massacre as at Wexford.

Fresh successes at Ross and Kilkenny brought him to Waterford, but the city held out stubbornly; disease thinned his army, where there was scarce an officer that had not been sick, and Cromwell himself was down with illness. At last the tempestuous weather drove him into winter quarters at Cork.

In the spring he stormed and carried Clonmel, and fought and overthrew the Irish army, under Hugh O'Neale, which was the hottest fight of the whole campaign.

The news of the negotiations of Charles at Breda filled the Parliament with dismay, for Scotland was raising an army, and Fairfax, while willing to defend England against a Scotch invasion, scrupled to take the lead in an invasion of Scotland.

The Council recalled Cromwell from Ireland; he entered London amid the shouts of a great multitude, and a month later, as Charles landed on the shores of Scotland, Cromwell, with an army of fifteen thousand men, started to meet him. He crossed the Tweed, but the terror of his Irish massacres hung round him, and the country was deserted as he advanced, and he was forced to depend for provisions on his fleet which sailed along the coast. Leslie, in command of the Scottish army, lay in his way to Edinburgh, and Cromwell fell back on Dunbar, and on September 3d the battle of that name was fought, and the Scotch completely defeated; ten thousand prisoners were taken with all their baggage and guns; three thousand were slain, with small loss on the part of the English.

The effect of the victory of Dunbar was at once seen in the attitude of the continental powers. Spain hastened to recognize the Republic, and Holland offered its alliance.

Humiliation after humiliation had been heaped on Charles since he landed on his northern realm. He had subscribed to the covenant; he had listened to sermons and scoldings from the ministers; he had been called on to sign a declaration that acknowledged the tyranny of his father and the idolatry of his mother. Hardened and shameless as he was, the young king for a moment recoiled.

He was crowned as Charles II. at Scone, on January 1, 1651, and in July marched on England with twenty thousand men; but, after advancing as far as Worcester, was met by Cromwell with an overwhelming force, and after several hours' hard fighting, the parliamentarians gained what Cromwell called a "crowning victory," and the hopes of the royalists were for a time crushed.

Cromwell returned to London, where four commissioners were sent to receive him like a king. They conducted him to

Hampton Court, and, in the insolence of his victory, he presented fifteen hundred prisoners to his friends as slaves, who were sent to work in the mines on the coast of Guinea, where they all miserably perished; others were sent to America and the West Indies.

While the members of Parliament grew rich by rapine, and remained in power for that purpose, the people groaned under a weight of taxation they had never before experienced.

A navigation act passed, prohibiting the importation in foreign vessels of any but the products of the countries to which they belonged, struck a fatal blow at the carrying trade from which the Dutch drew their wealth, and fresh debates arose from the English claim to salutes from all vessels in the channel.

Two fleets met before Dover, and a summons from Admiral Blake to lower the Dutch flag was met by the Dutch admiral, Van Tromp, with a broadside.

The States General attributed the firing to an accident, and offered to recall Van Tromp; but the English demands were such that war was inevitable, and on July 8, 1652, war was declared against the United Provinces.

Since the downfall of Spain, Holland was considered the first naval power in the world. Immense efforts were now made by that power to strengthen their fleet, and the veteran Van Tromp appeared in the channel with a fleet of seventy-five ships of war. Blake had but half that number, but he at once accepted the challenge, and an unequal fight was carried on until night-fall, when the English fleet withdrew, shattered, to the Thames. Tromp swept the channel in triumph with a broom at his mast-head. The strenuous efforts of Blake enabled him again to put to sea in a few months after his defeat, when he met Van Tromp, and after a running fight of four days, ended at last in an English victory. Parliament, no longer apprehensive of domestic war, proposed to reduce the army, which they attempted to carry into execution. Cromwell, perceiving that they entertained a jealousy of his power, and was resolved to bring him to subjection under its authority, determined to prevent it. He summoned a council of general officers, in which it was voted to frame a remonstrance.

After complaining of arrears due to the army, they desired Parliament to reflect how many years it had sat, and that it was now full time for it to give place to others. They therefore desired it to summon a new parliament, and establish that free and equal government which it had so long promised the people.

The Parliament took this remonstrance in ill part, much altercation ensued, and they insisted on the retention of power. At last, Cromwell being informed that the House had come to the resolution not to dissolve, on April 23, 1653, summoned a company of soldiers to follow him as far as the door of the Commons. He entered and sat down quietly in his place, and listened to Vane's passionate arguments. At the question, "that this bill do pass," he at length rose, and having repeated his charges of self-interest, injustice, and delay, said, "Your hour is come; the Lord hath done with you."

A crowd of members started to their feet in angry protest. "Come, come," replied Cromwell, "we have had enough of this; I will put an end to your prating. It is not fit that you should sit here any longer; you should give place to better men! You are no parliament." Thirty musketeers entered at a sign from their general, and the fifty members present crowded to the door. "Drunkard!" Cromwell broke out as Wentworth passed him; and Martyn was taunted with a yet coarser name. The Speaker refused to quit his seat till Harrison offered "to lend him a hand to come down." Cromwell lifted the mace from the table. "What shall we do with this bauble?" he said; "take it away!" The door of the House was locked at last, and the dispersion of the Parliament was followed a few hours after by that of its executive committee, the Council of State. Cromwell himself ordered them to withdraw.

The dispersion both of the Parliament and of its executive committee left England without a government, and Cromwell, as Captain-General of the forces, found himself left solely responsible for the maintenance of public order. The military being now the sole power, with Cromwell as its head, Lambert proposed to adopt a scheme of government whereby it should be represented by the authority of a single person, who should be known as Protector, and at a subsequent meeting of the council

of general officers, on December 12, 1653, Cromwell was elected to that office. He then appointed a Council of State, composed of twelve members of his own selection, and in his own name summoned one hundred and forty persons to meet as a parliament, commonly known as the Barebones Parliament.

After their passing about five months in idle talk, and not willing to forward his ambitious views, he got some of them to resign and expelled the rest. Three days afterward he was inaugurated in Westminster Hall (December 16th) as his Highness the Lord Protector, and a council was appointed of twenty-one members, who were to enjoy the office during life or good behavior. A new constitution was formed, drawn by his creatures, which declared that there should be a parliament of four hundred and sixty members, to sit three years, and a standing army of thirty thousand men; the parliament not to meet until the following September; his highness to perform all the functions in the interim, and to enjoy his office for life, to make peace or war, and to treat with foreign states with the assent of his council, and on his death the place was to be supplied by the council. Thus the sovereign authority, of which Parliament had deprived the king, was transferred to the Protector.

The new parliament met September 3, 1654. All persons who in any way assisted the king—Presbyterians, Episcopalians, or Royalists—were declared incapable of serving; the smaller boroughs were deprived of their franchise. This was the first parliament in our history where members from Scotland and Ireland sat side by side with those from England. The first business of the House was to consider the question of government. They questioned the Protector's authority, and asked for information as to what had been done during his nine months protectorate. "The great end of your meeting," he said, "is healing and settling." Though he had himself done much, there was still much to be done. Bills were laid before the House, and he resented the setting of that business aside for constitutional questions which, as he held, a divine call had decided; but he resented yet more the renewed claim advanced by Parliament to the sole power of legislation. He soon after dissolved the House.

The discontent shown by this parliament encouraged the royalists to attempt an insurrection, which was soon put down, and served only to strengthen the government.

Cromwell concluded a treaty with France, October, 1655, which stipulated that neither Charles nor his brother, the Duke of York, should be suffered to remain in that kingdom.

He fitted out two large squadrons. One, under Blake, was despatched to the Mediterranean, attacked Algiers, and compelled the Dey to restrain his piratical subjects from further violence on the English. The other squadron sailed for the West Indies; the attack on St. Domingo was repulsed with loss and disgrace, but Jamaica surrendered without a blow, May, 1655.

Blake died on his return voyage, just as the fleet arrived at Plymouth.

Cromwell, anxious as ever to give a legal basis to his administration, again summoned Parliament, which met September 17, 1656. In summoning this House he used every art in order to influence the elections and fill the House with his own creatures. The sixty members sent from Scotland and Ireland were simply nominees of the government; Catholics and royalists, who had actually fought for the king, were still disqualified from voting. It was calculated that of the members returned one-half were bound to the government by ties of profit or place. But Cromwell was still unsatisfied.

A certificate of the council was required from each member before admission to the House, and by this means one-fourth of the members returned were excluded. On April 9th, Parliament offered Cromwell the crown. After some consideration, hearing that a conspiracy was formed in the army to murder him should he accept, he declined the offer. On June 26, 1657, he was again inaugurated as Protector, with royal pomp, at Westminster.

His eldest son, Richard, was now brought to court, introduced into public business, and recognized as his heir to the protectorship.

From this time Cromwell showed great fear of assassination. He doubled his guards and wore armor. All peace of mind was now fled; he felt that the grandeur which he had attained

by so much guilt could not insure him happiness. His health was now affected by the anxiety of his mind; fever attacked him, and his physicians saw his end was near. The council was alarmed.

A deputation was sent to know his will with regard to his successor. He named his son Richard, and very shortly afterward breathed his last, on September 3, 1658, in the fifty-ninth year of his age.

Richard was thirty-two years of age, a man of little experience, indolent, irresolute, and incapable. His brother Henry ruled Ireland with popularity, and insured him the obedience of that part of the kingdom. General Monk, whose authority was well established in Scotland, proclaimed the new Protector. The army and the fleet acknowledged his title, and about one hundred addresses from the counties and principal cities and corporations congratulated him on his accession. A new parliament was summoned January 27, 1659, which proceeded to examine the humble petition and advice, and, after great opposition, it was at length carried. On the other hand, the most influential officers of the army were caballing against the Protector, and they were joined by the whole republican party among the soldiers, which was still considerable.

Richard was prevailed upon to give an unguarded consent for calling a general council of officers, who proposed that the whole military power should be intrusted to some person in whom they might all confide. The Parliament, not less alarmed than the Protector, voted that there should be no meeting or general council of officers except with the Protector's consent, or by his orders. This vote brought affairs immediately to a rupture.

The officers hastened to Richard and demanded of him the dissolution of Parliament. He wanted the resolution to deny, or ability to resist, and on April 22d Parliament was dissolved; and though he remained nominally Protector a few weeks longer, all his real power was gone.

The council of officers now resolved on restoring what remained of the Long Parliament. Its numbers were small, but, being men of great ambition, many of them of experience,

they were resolved not to act a subordinate part. They voted that all commissions should be granted by the Speaker, and be assigned by him in the name of the House. These precautions gave great annoyance.

Encouraged by these dissensions, the royalists determined on a rising in several counties, but their plans were betrayed. Lambert and the other general officers expelled the Parliament October 13th, and elected a committee of twenty, whom they invested with sovereign authority, under the name of a Committee of Safety. But, amidst all these gloomy prospects, fortune was paving the way for the return of the king.

General Monk, who, through all these changes, had retained his command in Scotland, crossed the border with a considerable army. He kept his own counsel and marched steadily forward, professing that his only object was to restore the Parliament. The cry of a "free parliament" ran like fire through the country. Not only Fairfax, who appeared in arms in Yorkshire, but the ships on the Thames and the mob which thronged the streets of London, caught up the cry. The army, thrown into confusion by its own divisions, strove to check the tide of feeling by recalling the Commons, and Monk, who lavished protestations of loyalty to that assembly while he accepted petitions for a "free parliament," entered London unopposed.

From the moment of his entry the restoration of the Stuarts became inevitable.

When the new Parliament met, April 25, 1660, they chose Sir Harbottle Grimstone as Speaker, and it was found many royalists were elected. They soon took the management of affairs into their own hands; they recalled the members expelled by Cromwell in 1653, and appointed a new council of state. The great dangers they had incurred during the former usurpation, together with the extreme caution of Monk, kept every one in awe.

At last the general, having sufficiently sounded their inclinations, gave directions to the president of the council to inform the house that Sir John Granville, a servant of the king, was now at the door with a letter for the Commons. Granville was admitted; the letter, accompanied with a declaration, was

greedily read, and without a moment's delay, a committee was appointed to prepare an answer, and both were ordered to be published.

The people, freed from a state of suspense, now changed their anxieties into joy, and displayed the greatest exultation.

The king offered a free pardon to both Houses of Parliament, and all who chose to return to their allegiance. The proposal was accepted with joy, and on May 8, 1660, Charles II. was proclaimed at Whitehall and Temple Bar, and a committee of the Lords and Commons was despatched to invite his Majesty to take possession of the government.

The respect of foreign powers soon followed the submission of the king's subjects. Spain invited Charles to embark from one of her maritime ports in the Low Countries; France offered Calais for the same purpose, and the States General sent a like friendly invitation. The king decided to accept the last offer, and sailed from the Hague for Dover, where he was met by General Monk, whom he cordially embraced. He landed May 29, 1660, and proceeded immediately to London amidst the joy of the people.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—France: Louis XIV.; Emperors of the West: Ferdinand III., Leopold I.; Spain: Philip IV.



Charles II.—A.D. 1660–1685.

Born at St. James's Palace, May 29, 1630.

Crowned, April 23, 1661.

Married Catherine of Braganza, Infanta of Portugal, daughter of John IV.

No legitimate issue.

Died at Whitehall, February 6, 1685.

Buried at Westminster.

CHARLES, second son of Charles I. and his queen Henrietta, daughter of Henry IV., King of France, was born May 29, 1630, the eldest son, Charles James, having died soon after his birth.

At the age of twelve years Charles was appointed by his father commander of a troop of horse, which he raised as a body-guard at York, and three years after he was sent to serve with the royal troops in the west with the rank of general. After the battle of Naseby, 1645, the prince fled to Scilly, and afterward to Jersey, where he remained until September, 1646, when he joined his mother in Paris. In 1669, while residing at the Hague, he received the news of the execution of his father, and immediately assumed the title of king, and was proclaimed in Edinburgh, February 3, 1649, but with little prospect of ascending the throne. Leaving Holland to spend some time with his mother in Paris, he subsequently left for Jersey, whence he sailed for Scotland, where he landed June 23, 1650, having first agreed to the conditions imposed by the Presbyterians, and having been forced to take the covenant before landing. He was proclaimed King of Scotland at Edinburgh, July 15, 1650, and was crowned at Scone, January 1, 1651.

Cromwell having already conquered the greater part of Scot-

land, Charles resolved on marching south. He entered England on August 6th, and took possession of the city of Carlisle, where he was again proclaimed king on August 20th.

The battle of Worcester, on September 3, when he was defeated by Cromwell, put an end to this enterprise, and after many narrow escapes from capture, he succeeded in embarking at Shoreham, Sussex, on October 15th, and sailed for Normandy, and from thence to Paris. The peace with France in 1655 forced him to leave that country, from whence he travelled to Bruges, and remained there and in Brussels until the news of Cromwell's death, in 1658, reached him. In order to be able to avail himself of the confusion which arose in England, he stationed himself for a time in Calais, but afterward left for Spain, and thence to Breda, where he opened negotiations with General Monk.

Having transmitted to Parliament a document called the Declaration of Breda, containing specifications and pledges as to his future conduct and principles of government, his restoration to the throne of England was voted on May 1, 1660, and eight days after he was proclaimed king in London. He left the Hague May 23d, and arrived at Dover five days after.

His journey to London was one continued triumph, and the whole of the country through which he passed was decked in holiday array.

So great was the rapture of loyalty with which he was received that he assured some of his friends he could not see, for the life of him, why he had stayed away so long, when everybody appeared so charmed that he had at length come back again.

Charles was now thirty years of age. He possessed a vigorous constitution, manly figure, and graceful air, and though his features were harsh, his countenance, in the main, was lively and engaging; from the whole tenor of his actions, he seemed willing to forget all past animosities, and of uniting every party in an affection for their king and country.

In the formation of his council he appointed the most eminent men of the nation without regard to former distinctions, the Presbyterians equally with the royalists shared in this honor.

The Earl of Manchester was appointed Lord Chamberlain, and Lord Say, Privy Seal. Two Presbyterian clergymen, Calamy and Baxter, were made chaplains to the king. The choice of the council and other officers was the circumstance which chiefly gave contentment to the nation and foreshadowed future happiness and tranquillity, and universal joy diffused itself throughout the nation. The melancholy austerity of the fanatics fell into discredit, together with their principles.

It required some time before the several departments of state could recover their former arrangement, but Parliament soon fell into a good understanding with the king, and they treated him with the same dutiful regard which had formerly been paid to his predecessors. All judicial proceedings transacted in the name of the Commonwealth or Protector were ratified by a new law, and both houses acknowledging the guilt of the former rebellion, gratefully received, in their own name and in that of all the subjects, his majesty's gracious pardon and indemnity. He then issued a proclamation declaring that such of the late king's judges as did not yield themselves prisoners within fourteen days should receive no pardon. Nineteen surrendered themselves; some were taken in their flight, others escaped.

The act of indemnity passed both houses and received the royal assent. Those who had an immediate hand in the late king's death were there excepted. Even Cromwell, Ireton, Bradshaw, and others now dead, were attainted, and their estates confiscated.

The next business of Parliament was the settlement of the king's revenue, in which they were liberal; and having proceeded somewhat in the settlement of national affairs, the House adjourned.

During the recess of Parliament the object which principally interested the public was the trial and condemnation of the regicides.

Six of the late king's judges, Harrison, Scot, Carew, Clement, Jones, and Seroop, together with Axtel, who had guarded the court; Hacker, who commanded the troops on the day of the king's execution; Coke, the solicitor for the people, and Hugh Peters, the fanatical preacher who inflamed the army and im-

pelled them to regicide—were tried, condemned, and executed, September 18, 1660. The rest of the king's judges, by great lenity, were reprieved, and committed to prison.

At the same time the Duke of Gloucester, a prince of great promise, died in the twentieth year of his age.

The Princess of Orange, who arrived in England to take part in the joy attending the restoration of her family, soon after sickened and died. The queen-mother also paid a visit to her son, and obtained his consent to the marriage of his sister, the Princess Henrietta, with the Duke of Orleans, brother to the French king.

Parliament met November 6th, and after a short session of two months, without transacting any particular business, was dissolved by the king in a speech full of gracious expressions.

James, Duke of York, married Anne Hyde, daughter of Lord Clarendon, the king's favorite minister; she had been previously seduced by the duke under a promise of marriage, and Charles, in pity for his friend, obliged the duke to marry her.

The king used great moderation at first in the execution of the laws, and the Commons put off the examination of religious controversy and left the settlement of the church to the king and to the ancient laws. Nine bishops still lived, and these were immediately restored to their sees. All the rejected clergy recovered their livings, and the liturgy was again admitted into the churches.

The affairs in Scotland were equal to those in England in regard to their settlement and compliance with the king, and all forts were given up that had been held by Cromwell, and the royal authority was again restored.

A new parliament met on May 8, 1661. Not more than sixty members of the Presbyterian party had obtained seats in the Lower House—too small a number to oppose or retard the measures of the majority. Monarchy and episcopacy were now exalted to as great power and splendor as they had lately suffered misery and depression. An act was passed for the security of the king's person and government.

The acts declaring England a commonwealth, the covenant, and the appointment of a high court of justice, were ordered

to be burned by the common hangman. The bishops, though restored to their spiritual authority, were still excluded from Parliament by a law passed in the last reign, which was now repealed, and they were restored to their seats.

Charles married Catherine of Braganza, daughter of John IV., King of Portugal, May 21, 1662, with whom he received, as a dower, £400,000, and the fortresses of Tangier in Africa and Bombay in the East Indies. The marriage was inauspicious, as the queen was never able to make herself agreeable to him, and they lived unhappily together. He soon outraged her feelings by presenting to her his avowed mistress. The poor queen fainted, and blood rushed from her nose. Clarendon at last persuaded her to submit to the insult, but her spirit was utterly broken. The unblushing licentiousness of the court was a scandal to the world, even in that day of reaction against Puritan severity. Its excessive extravagance so far exceeded the liberal grants made by Parliament for the royal expenses, that there was a general wonder where the money was obtained.

An act of uniformity was passed (1662), in which it was enacted that no person should hold preferment in the Church of England, or administer the sacrament of the Lord's Supper unless he had been episcopally ordained in the form and manner enjoined by the Book of Common Prayer.

The Presbyterian ministers were ejected from their livings because they would not conform to the act.

The first really unpopular acts of the king were his declaration of indulgence to Roman Catholics and the surrender of Dunkirk to France for the sum of £400,000. This fortress was won by the valor of the Cromwell soldiery, and was regarded as a compensation for the loss of Calais.

Parliament now resolved to single out as victims of their severity some of the Scottish leaders in the late rebellion, and the Marquis of Argyll and Guthrie, a preacher, were tried for treason, found guilty, and on May 27, 1662, executed.

The excessive zeal for the episcopacy of Clarendon, and the rough cruelty of Claverhouse in Scotland, made this a reign of bitter religious persecution. The more moderate Presbyterians,

led by Baxter, were persuaded at first that the king would be friendly to them, but were terribly undeceived.

In June, 1663, Archbishop Juxon died, and was succeeded by Sheldon, Bishop of London. This year, for the last time, the clergy granted subsidies to the crown.

According to a promise made in the declaration of Breda, the king intimated to Parliament his desire of granting some indulgence to dissenters, but the Commons were not inclined to concede it, and followed up their opposition by an address to the king that all popish priests and Jesuits might be banished the kingdom. Whether they began to suspect the king of an inclination to Romanism, and were even then aware that his brother, the Duke of York, had embraced that faith, is uncertain.

In 1664 the Commons presented an address to the king, complaining of the wrongs offered to the English trade by the Dutch, and promising to assist him with their lives and fortunes in asserting the rights of his crown against all opposition whatever.

War was declared against Holland, February 22, 1665, and Parliament voted a supply of £2,500,000 to carry on the war. The royalists regarded the Dutch with dislike, not only from old grievances, when they had been obliged to seek shelter among them and had been denied it, but because that shelter was now freely given to the disaffected.

An English fleet was fitted out, consisting of ninety sail, commanded by the Duke of York and Prince Rupert. They met the Dutch fleet, of about equal number, under command of Admiral Opdam, and a battle was fought in Solebay, off the coast of Suffolk, June 3, 1665, where the Dutch were defeated with a loss of twenty ships, captured and sunk. The admiral's ship having blown up, the remainder of the fleet fled toward their own coast. The English lost only one ship. The French monarch, becoming alarmed lest the English should become masters of the sea and over commerce, determined to support the Dutch, and declared war against England, January 16, 1666. During this year London was almost desolated by the plague, ten thousand dying in a week and over one hundred thousand

deaths during the year. On July 3d a terrible conflagration completed the work of destruction.

The war with the Dutch continued, and the most determined sea-fights ever known were carried on between the fleets of the two nations—the Dutch under Van Tromp and De Ruyter, and the English under Lord Albemarle and Prince Rupert. One sea engagement, lasting four days, ended, July 25, 1666, in a glorious victory to the English, who now rode incontestable masters of the sea, and insulted the Dutch in their own harbors.

The fruitless nature of the war, together with the plague and fire, disposed the English government to make advances for peace. Ambassadors were appointed, and everything was settled except the dispute with regard to the possession of the Isle of Polderne in the East Indies; as the reasons on both sides began to multiply it was agreed to transfer the consultation to Breda. The English ambassadors desired a suspension of arms until the several claims were adjusted, but this was rejected by the Dutch. De Witt, who governed the Dutch republic at this time, was fully aware that, owing to the want of money in England, and, pending the peace, Charles had laid up his fleet and discharged his men, and now saw the chance of striking a blow which might at once restore to the Dutch the honor lost during the war and revenge the injuries received from the English. He therefore protracted the negotiations at Breda and hastened his naval preparations.

The Dutch fleet, under De Ruyter, appeared in the Thames, and threw the English into the utmost consternation. Sheerness was soon taken and all the men-of-war lying there destroyed. Taking advantage of a spring tide and an easterly wind the Dutch passed on and broke the chain that had been drawn across the Medway, though the passage had been obstructed by sunken vessels. Three ships which guarded the chain were destroyed, others were damaged; they then burned the ships at Chatham. Dropping down the Medway they took the next tide up the Thames, destroying ships at Woolwich and Blackwall; they then returned without receiving any considerable damage.

They next attacked Portsmouth, where they made a fruitless attempt, and met with no better success at Plymouth.

In the meantime the English ambassadors had been instructed to recede from their demands, and the peace of Breda was signed, July 21, 1667, and Charles was extricated from his present difficulties.

At this time the Chancellor, Lord Clarendon, fell into bad repute with the nation for many reasons; among others, the sale of Dunkirk was attributed to him. The Catholics knew that while he retained power their influence with the king would be useless, and the king himself, disappointed in one of his intrigues with a Mrs. Stuart, through the Chancellor, never forgave him his disappointment. Articles of impeachment were drawn up against him: most of them were known to be false or frivolous. Finding that popular feeling was strong against him he left hurriedly for France, where he addressed a paper to the House of Lords defining his position and his excuse for his past conduct. The Lords transmitted this paper to the Commons under the name of a libel, and by a vote of both houses it was ordered to be burned.

The Parliament next exercised their power by passing a bill of banishment against him. He lived in France until his death, six years after, employing his time for that period in writing the history of the civil wars, for which he had collected material. He was followed, after a short interval, by the ministry known as the Cabal, and Sir William Temple effected the triple alliance between England, Holland, and Sweden, January, 1668: When the king announced it to Parliament it gave great satisfaction to the nation, being the best public act since the restoration. Unhappily at the same time Charles was negotiating a clandestine treaty with Louis XIV., which was to make England entirely subservient to the French king, and when Sir William Temple returned home in the autumn of 1670 he was coldly received by the ministers and the king, and he retired into private life. Louis, knowing the great influence of the Duchess of Orleans over her brother Charles, employed her to use her good offices in order to detach him from the triple alliance, which he knew if adhered to would add insurmountable barriers to his ambition.

The Duchess of Orleans arrived at Dover, and on May 22, 1670, a secret treaty was entered into whereby Charles agreed that, at a convenient time, he would make a public profession of the Roman Catholic religion, and also would assist Louis against Holland, England supplying a small land force, but bearing the chief burden of the contest at sea, on condition of an annual subsidy of three million francs. In the event of the death of the King of Spain without a son, Charles promised to support France in her claims upon Flanders.

In order to tie him still closer to the French interest Louis resolved to bind him by the ties of pleasure, and sent him a French mistress, Mlle. Querouaille, by whose means he hoped to govern him. Charles carried her to London, and soon afterward created her Duchess of Portsmouth, and she became ancestress of the house of Richmond.

A short time after this the Duchess of Orleans sickened and died in the thirty-ninth year of her age.

To supply money to the king and ministry the treasury was closed, and the regular payment of over £1,000,000, then due, was suspended by proclamation for one year. A financial panic and great distress ensued. It was decided to capture a fleet of Dutch ships, but the convoy beat off the English fleet sent against them. On March 17, 1672, war was declared against Holland, and a declaration was issued by France at the same time. The pretext for war was trifling.

The first important battle in Southwold Bay, May 28th, gave little advantage to either side. The French in the meantime were victorious on land, but the young Prince of Orange proved the deliverer of his country. The war dragged on for two years when a separate peace was made between England and Holland, 1674, but the war on the part of France continued.

The king's necessities obliged him to call a parliament on October 20, 1673, which he feared to meet from the general discontent existing, but in his speech he addressed them with all the appearance of cordiality and confidence. He stated he would have assembled them sooner, but he was desirous of giving them full time to attend to their private affairs as well as to give his people a respite from taxation.

Parliament petitioned against the proposed marriage of the Duke of York and the Princess of Modena, but Charles replied that the alliance was already completed. They also remonstrated against the alliance with France and the king's evil councillors, but with no effect.

Meantime Charles made a declaration of indulgence, suspending all penal laws in religious matters, in consequence of which many prisoners were released, among others John Bunyan, who had been in jail twelve years; but the declaration was extremely unpopular.

As the dissenters had seconded the efforts of the Commons against the king's declaration of indulgence, and seemed resolute to accept no toleration in an illegal manner, they acquired favor with the Parliament, and a project was formed to unite the whole Protestant interest against the common enemy, popery, which now appeared formidable.

By the advice of the King of France, and to restrain his discontented subjects, Charles gathered a large army at Blackheath. Many of the officers were of the Roman Catholic religion, which caused great dissatisfaction.

Considerable changes took place about this time in the English ministry, the Earl of Danby being the chief director of public affairs. Parliament was summoned in April, 1675, as the king desired supplies, not only for the building of ships, but for paying off the indebtedness of the nation; he even confessed that he had not been as frugal as he might have been, and promised to be more so for the future; but the house not voting the required assistance, he prorogued them until November.

William, Prince of Orange, visited England, and on November 4, 1677, married the Princess Mary, elder daughter of James, Duke of York, which gave great satisfaction to the nation, but made no change in the policy of the king. It gave great offence to Louis, who, accustomed to govern everything in the English court, now found so important a step taken, not only without his consent, but without his knowledge. Parliament assembled in November, and again declined to vote supplies unless the king agreed to enter into an alliance with Holland against France.

He stood upon his prerogative, and refused to be dictated to in matters of peace or war, or permit the Commons to prescribe what alliances he should make. He therefore again prorogued Parliament, and it was done for no other cause than his atonement to Louis, and for this service, it is said, Charles received five hundred thousand crowns from that monarch, and they both agreed and stipulated not to make any treaties unacceptable to each other. Charles also accepted a pension with the understanding that he would prorogue or dissolve any parliament which should attempt to force any such treaty upon him, or against the interest of France.

Meanwhile the war continued on the continent, the Prince of Orange, supported by the Emperor of the West, continued manfully to struggle against Louis. The following year (1678) peace was made between France and Holland, the French obtaining considerable territory at the expense of Spain.

There was great discontent throughout the land at the conversion of the Duke of York to the Church of Rome, since his marriage to a Roman Catholic princess.

Ever since the fatal league with France the nation entertained violent jealousies of the court. Some mysterious design was still suspected in every enterprise and profession. Arbitrary power and popery were apprehended as the intention of all projects; each breath, or rumor made the people start with anxiety; their enemies, they thought, were in their very bosom, and had gotten possession of their sovereign's confidence.

While in this timorous disposition, the cry of a *plot* suddenly struck their ears. They were wakened from their slumber, and, like men afrighted in the dark, took every figure for a spectre. The terror of each man became the source of terror to another; and a universal panic being diffused, reason, argument, common sense, and common humanity lost all influence over them. From this disposition of men's minds we are to account for the progress of the popish plot, and the credit given to it; an event which would otherwise appear prodigious and altogether inexplicable.

On August 12, 1678, one Kirby, a chemist, accosted the king as he was walking in the park. "Sire," said he, "keep within

the company ; your enemies have a design upon your life, and you may be shot in this very walk." Being asked the reason of this strange speech, he said that two men, called Grove and Pickering, had engaged to shoot the king, and Sir George Wakeman, the queen's physician, to poison him. This intelligence, he added, had been communicated to him by Dr. Tonge, whom, if permitted, he would introduce to his majesty.

Tonge was Rector of St. Michael's, Wood Street, a man active, restless, full of projects, void of understanding. He brought papers to the king which contained information of a plot, and were collected into forty-three articles.

The king gave no credit to the story ; but the Duke of York, hearing that priests and Jesuits, and even his own confessor, had been accused, was desirous that a thorough inquiry should be made by the council into the pretended conspiracy.

Kirby and Tonge were inquired after, and were now found to be living in close connection with Titus Oates, the person who was said to have conveyed the first intelligence to Tonge. Oates was a man of infamous character ; he had been originally an Anabaptist, had become a clergyman of the established church at the restoration, and subsequently went abroad, pretending to be a convert to Romanism.

The main articles of the wonderful conspiracy were that the Pope had delegated the sovereignty of Great Britain to the Jesuits, who had proceeded to name a government and fill up the dignities of the church ; that the king, who they named the "Black Bastard," was to be put to death as a heretic ; that Père la Chaise, the celebrated confessor of Louis XIV., had remitted £10,000 to London, as a reward for the king's assassination, and other foreign ecclesiastics had offered further sums ; that London was to be fired in several places by means of fire-balls, which they called Tewkesbury mustard-pills. The Protestants were to be massacred all over the kingdom ; the crown was to be offered to the Duke of York on condition of his receiving it as a gift from the Pope and utterly extirpating the Protestant religion. If he refused these conditions, he himself was immediately to be poisoned or assassinated. Oates, when examined before the council, betrayed his impostures in the grossest manner.

Danby, who stood in opposition to the French and Catholic interest at court, was willing to encourage every story which might serve to discredit that party.

By his suggestion a warrant was signed for arresting Coleman, who had been secretary to the late Duchess of York, and whom Oates had implicated in his evidence.

Coleman's papers were seized, among which were copies of letters to Père la Chaise and other eminent foreign Catholics. These betrayed a scheme for the conversion of the nation to popery; but instead of the king being murdered, he was to have been bribed by the King of France, and the design was altogether different from Oates's pretended discovery. Yet his plot and Coleman's were universally confounded together, and the evidence of the latter being unquestionable, the belief of the former, aided by the passions and hatred of the people, took possession of the whole nation. The murder of a magistrate named Godfrey completed the general delusion.

When Parliament met, October 21, 1678, Danby, who hated the Catholics and courted popularity, opened the matter in the House of Peers, and the cry of the plot was immediately echoed from one house to the other. The authority of Parliament gave sanction to that fury with which the people were already agitated. A solemn fast was appointed, addresses were voted for the removal of popish recusants from London, and for appointing the train-bands of London and Westminster to be in readiness.

The Catholic Lords—Powys, Stafford, Arundel, Petre, and Bellasis—were committed to the Tower, and were soon after impeached for high treason; and both Houses, after hearing Oates's evidence, voted that there had been, "and still is a damnable and hellish plot." Oates, though an infamous villain, was by every one applauded, and called the saviour of the nation: was recommended by Parliament to the king, and received a pension of £1,200 a year. It was not long before this bountiful encouragement brought out other witnesses, which implicated Lords Carrington, Brudenel, and other eminent persons, who were committed to custody.

A bill for a parliamentary test passed the Commons without much opposition, but, in the House of Peers, the Duke of York

moved that an exception might be made in his favor. After an earnest address, the bill was carried in his favor by two votes.

By this bill, no peer or member of the House of Commons could sit or vote without making a declaration repudiating the doctrine of transubstantiation, the adoration of the Virgin, and the sacrifice of the mass. Thus all Roman Catholics were excluded from both Houses of Parliament until the repeal of this act in the reign of George IV.

Encouraged by this general fury, Oates and Bedloe were now so audacious as to accuse the queen herself of entering into the design against the life of her husband. The Commons gave countenance to this accusation, but the Lords would not join them in the address to the king on the subject. Charles had the generosity to protect his injured consort. "They think," said he, "I have a mind to a new wife; but I will not see an innocent woman abused."

Montague, the king's ambassador at Paris, without asking the king's leave, suddenly came over to England. Charles, suspecting his intention, ordered his papers to be seized, but Montague had taken care to secrete two papers, which he laid before the House of Commons.

One was a letter written by Earl Danby, the treasurer, during the negotiations at Nimeguen. Montague was there directed to make a demand of money from France, or, in other words, the king was willing secretly to sell his good offices to Louis, contrary to the general interests of the confederates, and even to those of his own kingdom. The Commons were inflamed with this intelligence against Danby, and immediately voted an impeachment of high treason against him.

The House of Peers plainly saw that Danby's crime could not subject him to the penalties of high treason, and refused to commit him. The Commons insisted on their demand, and a great contest was likely to arise, when the king prorogued and dissolved Parliament, January 24, 1679. Thus came to an end the Parliament which had been in session during the whole of this reign, and consisted almost entirely of royalists, who were disposed to support the crown by all the liberality which the habits of that age would permit.

During the sitting of Parliament, and after its prorogation and dissolution, the trials of the pretended criminals were carried on, and the courts of judicature, places which, if possible, ought to be kept more pure from injustice than national assemblies themselves, were strongly infected with the same party rage and bigoted prejudices. Coleman was first brought to trial, was condemned, and executed; the same fate attended Grove, Pickering, and others. To be a Jesuit, or even a Catholic, was of itself a sufficient proof of guilt.

As the army could neither be kept up nor disbanded without money, the king found himself obliged to summon a new parliament.

The popish plot had a great influence upon the elections, and, in spite of the exertions of the government, all the zealots of the former Parliament were rechosen; new ones were added, and it was apprehended that the new representatives would, if possible, exceed the old in their refractory opposition to the court and furious persecution of the Catholics. The king was alarmed when he saw so dreadful a tempest arise from such small and unaccountable beginnings. In order to gratify and appease his people and Parliament, he desired the Duke of York to leave the country, that no further suspicion might remain of the influence of popish counsels.

The duke complied, and retired to Brussels, but first required an order signed by the king, lest his absenting himself should be interpreted as a proof of fear or of guilt.

He also desired that his brother should satisfy him, as well as the public, by a declaration of the illegitimacy of the Duke of Monmouth.

The new parliament met on March 6, 1679. The king desired that Sir Thomas Moore be elected speaker, but the House, by a unanimous vote, appointed Seymore, speaker of the late Parliament. On his being presented to the king for approbation, he was rejected, and the Commons ordered to proceed to a new choice. A great contest ensued, till, by way of a compromise, it was agreed to set aside both candidates, and Gregory, a lawyer, was chosen, and the election was ratified by the king. It has ever since been understood that the election of Speaker

lies in the House, but that the king retains the power of rejecting any person disagreeable to him. The impeachment of Danby was revived. The king had beforehand taken the precaution to grant him a pardon, and, in order to screen the chancellor from all attacks by the Commons, he had taken the Great Seal into his own hands, and had himself affixed it to the parchment. The Commons denied the power of the crown with regard to impeachment, and the Peers ordered Danby to be taken into custody. He absconded, but a bill having passed for his attainder in default of his appearance, he surrendered, and was immediately committed to the Tower.

In order to allay the jealousy displayed by the Parliament and people, the king, by advice of Sir William Temple, laid the plan of a new Privy Council, without whose advice he declared himself determined for the future to take no measure of importance. This council was to consist of thirty persons; fifteen of the chief officers of the crown were to be continued, and the other half were to be composed either of men of character detached from the court, or of those who possessed the greatest influence in both Houses. The Earl of Essex was appointed Treasurer, in place of Danby; the Earl of Sunderland was made Secretary of State; Viscount Halifax was admitted to a seat, and the Earl of Shaftesbury was made President of the Council.

By his advice the celebrated exclusion bill was brought into Parliament, the object of which was to exclude the Duke of York from the succession to the throne. It was carried by a majority of seventy-nine votes in the Commons, but its further progress was stopped by the dissolution of Parliament, May 27th. Before its dissolution the king had, though reluctantly, given his consent to the *habeas corpus* act, for the enactment of which this Parliament is entitled to the gratitude of posterity.

During the recess of Parliament there was no interruption to the prosecution of the Catholics accused of the plot. About the same time serious disturbances occurred in Scotland. Lauderdale had ruled that country with great severity, and an incident at last happened which brought on an insurrection.

The Covenanters were much enraged against the primate, Sharpe, whom they considered as an apostate from their principles, and whom they experienced to be an unrelenting persecutor of all those who dissented from the established worship.

A body of them falling in with him by accident on the road near St. Andrew's, dragged him from his coach, tore him from the arms of his daughter, and left him dead on the spot, when they immediately dispersed. This atrocious action served the ministry as a pretence for a more violent persecution. The officers quartered in the west received strict orders to find out and disperse all conventicles, and for that reason the Covenanters, instead of meeting in small bodies, were obliged to celebrate their worship in numerous assemblies, and to bring arms for their security.

Graham, of Claverhousie, having attacked a large conventicle at Drumclog, was repulsed with a loss of thirty men. The Covenanters, finding that they were unwarily involved in such deep guilt, pushed on to Glasgow, made themselves masters of that city, dispossessed the established clergy, and issued proclamations, in which they declared that they fought against the king's supremacy, against popery and prelacy, and against a popish successor. But though they succeeded in raising an army of eight thousand men, they were soon dispersed by the Duke of Monmouth, whom the king had sent against them, at the battle of Bothwell Bridge, June 22, 1679.

In consequence of an illness of the king, the Duke of York returned to England, and shortly afterward went down to Scotland as Lord High Commissioner, where he was guilty of the most atrocious cruelties upon the Covenanters. He sometimes assisted in their torture, and looked on with tranquillity, as if he were witnessing some curious experiment.

The king opened Parliament, October 21, 1680, with a speech containing many mollifying expressions; but the Commons displayed the most violent and refractory disposition. Great numbers of the abhorrrers from all parts of England were seized by their order; and they renewed the vote of the former Parliament, which affirmed the reality of the horrid popish plot. The whole tribe of informers were applauded and rewarded; and

their testimony, however frivolous or absurd, met with a favorable reception.

The exclusion bill was again brought before the House of Commons, the debates were carried on with great violence on both sides; the bill passed by a large majority, but was lost in the House of Lords, at which the Commons showed much ill-humor at their disappointment.

The impeachment of the Catholic lords in the Tower was revived; Lord Stafford was made the first victim, and after a trial of six days, was found guilty of treason, and soon after executed, December 29, 1680. His was the last blood shed on account of the popish plot.

As the violence of the Commons still continued, the king prorogued and dissolved Parliament, January 10, 1681.

A new parliament was summoned, and in order to remove it from the influence of the factions citizens, it was required to meet at Oxford on March 21st. The leaders of the exclusionists came attended not only by their servants, but by numerous bands of their partisans, and the whole assembly bore the appearance of a tumultuous Polish diet more than of a regular English Parliament.

The Commons were not overawed by the magisterial air of the king's speech, who addressed them in a more authoritative manner than usual. The House consisted almost entirely of the same members, and chose the same Speaker. They instantly fell into the same measures, the impeachment of Danby, the inquiry into the popish plot, and the bill of exclusion. So violent were they, on this last article, that, though one of the king's ministers proposed that the Duke of York should be banished, during life, five hundred miles from England, and that on the king's demise, the next heir should be constituted regent with regal power, even this expedient, which left the duke only the bare title of king, could not obtain the attention of the House; no method, but entirely excluding the duke, would give satisfaction.

As there was no hope of a compromise, Charles again dissolved Parliament after a session of only seven days.

In March, 1682, the Earl of Argyle was condemned in Scot-

land of high treason, at the instance of the Duke of York, for refusing to take an absurd and contradictory test without a qualification. He escaped from prison, and succeeded in reaching Holland; but his estate was confiscated, and his arms reversed and torn.

In the following year the Duke of York paid a visit to England. His influence was great at court; though neither so much beloved or esteemed as the king, he was more dreaded, and thence an attendance more exact, as well as a submission more obsequious, was paid to him.

In March, 1683, the discovery of the Rye-house plot—to murder the king as he journeyed from Newmarket—was discovered, which caused the arrest of a number of eminent Whig leaders upon suspicion. There appears to have been a real plot among some obscure persons, but the complicity of the leading Whigs was not believed even by the royalists at the time. Yet Lord William Russell was beheaded, July 21st, Algernon Sidney, December 7th, and Sir Thomas Armstrong the following year.

The Duke of York was now closely associated with the king, and openly succeeded to the chief administration of public affairs.

The king endeavored to increase his popularity by every art; and knowing that the suspicion of popery was of all others the most dangerous, he judged it proper to marry his niece, the Lady Anne, daughter of the Duke of York, to Prince George, brother of the King of Denmark.

Lord Halifax suggested the calling of a parliament early in the year 1685, and opposed a further alliance with France. While the discussion was going on Charles was struck with apoplexy. When it was plain that he was dying, the Duchess of Portsmouth told Barillon, the French ambassador, that Charles was really a Roman Catholic and was dying outside the pale of his church; Barillon told the Duke of York, who, conferring with his brother, at his desire brought him a priest, to whom Charles confessed, received the sacrament with the other rites of the Roman Catholic Church, dying in that faith on February 6, 1685, at the palace of St. James, in the fifty-fourth year of his age, and twenty-fifth of his reign. He left no legitimate issue, but many children by his several mistresses.

Charles had good natural abilities and an amiable disposition. His early education and misfortunes quickened his wit, but left him careless of duty, incapable of self-denial, and sceptical of all virtue. He knew the worthlessness of his favorites, but was their slave, rather than their dupe. He was lavish of money, but not generously so, giving to those who pressed him hardest. His political course was not from motives of principle or conviction, as his father's had been, but he wished to be a king after the French fashion, unhampered by want of money or constitutional obstacles in the pursuit of his personal wishes and pleasures. He was devoid of revenge as well as gratitude, and treated friends and enemies with the same indolent selfishness; his affability, however, made him to some extent popular, in spite of his gross defects of character, and disgraceful misgovernment.

He was succeeded by his brother, James, Duke of York.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—France: Louis XIV.; Emperor of the West: Leopold I.; Spain: Charles II.

James II.—A.D. 1685–1688.

Born at St. James's Palace, October 15, 1633.

Crowned April 23, 1685.

Married, 1. Anne Hyde, daughter of Edward, Earl of Clarendon. Issue:

Charles, Duke of Cambridge.

James, Duke of Cambridge.

Charles, Duke of Kendal.

Edgar, Duke of Cambridge.

Mary, married William, Prince of Orange, and ascended the throne.

Anne, who succeeded William III.

Henrietta.

Catherine.

Married, 2. Maria, daughter of the Duke of Modena. Issue:

Charles, Duke of Cambridge.

James Francis, Duke of Cornwall.

Catherine.

Isabel.

Elizabeth.

Charlotte.

Louisa.

JAMES, second surviving son of Charles I. and Henrietta Maria, his queen, was born at the palace of St. James, October 15, 1633.

He was called Duke of York immediately after his birth, but not by patent until 1643. He was nine years of age when the civil war broke out, and was present at the battle of Edgehill, where he came near losing his life; he was also at the siege of Bristol.

When Oxford was captured James became a prisoner at Fairfax. At a ceremonious visit of the chiefs of the Parliamentary army, Cromwell was the only man who bent his knee to him. The prince was well treated, and allowed frequent interviews with his father, living most of the time with his brother Gloucester and sister Elizabeth at St. James's Palace, under the guardianship of Northumberland.

He escaped in 1648 and fled to the Netherlands, whence, after a residence in Flanders, he went to Paris in 1649; the same year he accompanied his brother Charles to the island of Jersey, residing there four months.

After the triumph of the enemies of his house, in 1651, he entered the French service and distinguished himself under Turenne. When, in 1655, the relations between England and France became friendly he was forced to leave, and he entered the Spanish army, where he fought against the English and French, and was treated with great consideration by the Spaniards.

He returned to England in June, 1660, after the restoration of his family, and on September 3d following married Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon. She died in the year 1671, leaving two daughters, Mary and Anne, both of whom succeeded to the throne.

He married in the year 1673 Maria Beatrice Eleanor, a princess of the house of D'Este of Modena, his junior by twenty-five years. He had become a Roman Catholic while in exile, but did not avow it until 1673. He distinguished himself in the wars with Holland and commanded the British fleet. The passage of the test act in 1673 obliged him to relinquish all his appointments, and he incurred great danger, and an effort was made to exclude him from the succession.

James retired to Brussels in 1679, but returned in the year 1682, when the king found himself master of the country, and

James was given a post in the administration of the government. He was shortly afterward sent to Scotland to settle the government of that country, and chose to take his passage by sea. The ship being wrecked the duke escaped in a barge, and his brother-in-law, Hyde, and several of the nobility were lost, although James took care to save his dogs and the priests attached to his suite. It is asserted that some who swam to the barge were thrust away and drowned, although there was room for them on board.

His administration was a short one in Scotland, leaving his authority in the hands of the Earl of Aberdeen. It is asserted he acted with great cruelty to the Covenanters, and sometimes assisted at the torture of criminals.

On his return to court he had great influence, a reaction having taken place in the government, and he upheld all the severe measures by which the Tory party sought to exterminate the Whigs.

The first act on James ascending the throne, on the death of his brother, Charles II., February 6, 1685, was to assemble the Privy Council, and he there promised to maintain the established government, both in church and state; and he declared that as he had heretofore ventured his life in defence of the nation, he would still go as far as any man in maintaining all its just rights and principles. This statement was received with great applause by the council, and reiterated by the whole country.

But he soon showed by the first exercise of his authority that he either was not sincere in his professions of attachment to the laws, or that he entertained so high an idea of his own legal power that even his utmost sincerity would tend very little to secure the liberties of the people.

All the customs and the greater part of the excise had been settled by Parliament on the late king during life, and consequently the grant was now expired; nor had the successor any right to levy these branches of revenue. But James issued a proclamation ordering the customs and excise to be paid as before, and this exercise of power he would not deign to qualify by the least act or even appearance of concession.

The king likewise went openly, and with all the ensigns of his dignity, to mass, an illegal meeting, and by this assurance he displayed at once his arbitrary disposition and the bigotry of his principles—the two characteristics of his reign, and the bane of his administration. He even sent Caryl as his agent to Rome, in order to make submissions to the Pope, and to pave the way for the readmission of England into the bosom of the Roman Catholic Church.

The Pope, Innocent XI., prudently advised the king not to be too precipitate in his measures, nor rashly attempt what greater experience might convince him was impracticable.

James gave hopes, on his accession, that he might hold the balance of power more steadily than his predecessor, and that France, instead of rendering England subservient to her ambitious projects, would now meet with strong opposition from that kingdom. But these expectations were not realized, as James found it to be to his interest to ally himself with the French king, who, by his power and zeal, seemed alone able to assist him in his project for promoting the Catholic religion in England.

Notwithstanding his prejudices, all the chief offices of the crown still remained in the hands of the Protestants. The Earl of Rochester was Treasurer; his brother, the Earl of Clarendon, Chamberlain; Lord Sunderland, Secretary of State; and the Marquis of Halifax, President of the Council. This last nobleman had stood in opposition to James during the last reign. On all occasions the king openly declared he would retain no minister who did not pay immediate obedience to his commands.

The queen had great influence over him—a woman of high spirit, who had been popular before attaining this high dignity, and was now entirely governed by the Jesuits, and as these were also the king's favorites, all public measures originated with them, and bore evident marks of their ignorance in government and of the violence of their religious zeal.

The king had another attachment not very consistent with regard for his queen, or devotion to his priests, in the person of Mrs. Sedley, whom he soon after created Countess of Dorches-

ter. She expected to govern him, as the Duchess of Portsmouth had ruled his brother, but through the influence of the priests she was removed from court.

On April 23, 1685, James and his queen were crowned at Westminster Abbey by the Archbishop of Canterbury. The communion and a few minor ceremonies were omitted.

Though the king, queen, and priests had little inclination for the meeting of Parliament, the king found it absolutely necessary to summon that assembly. The low condition to which the Whigs had fallen during the last years of Charles's reign, the odium under which they labored on account of the Rye-house plot, made that party meet with little success at the general elections. The new House of Commons therefore consisted almost entirely of zealous Tories and Churchmen, who were consequently strong supporters of the crown.

Parliament opened on May 10, 1685. In the speech from the throne the king plainly indicated that he had resources for supporting the government independent of their supplies; and that so long as they complied with his demands he would have recourse to them, but that any opposition on their part would set him free from the measures of government, which he seemed to regard more voluntary than necessary.

Parliament voted that they would settle on his majesty during life all the revenues enjoyed by the late king at the time of his death. They also resolved that the House entirely relied upon his majesty's royal word, and repeated declarations to support the religion of the Church of England, and added that that religion was dearer to them than their lives.

The Speaker, on presenting the revenue bill to the king, took care to inform him in regard to the resolution on religion, but could not receive from him one word in favor of that motion. Notwithstanding the suspicions which the silence afforded, the House continued in the same liberal disposition toward him.

As soon as James's accession was known in Holland, various bands of refugees began to prepare for an invasion of the two kingdoms.

The Dukes of Argyle and Monmouth were regarded as the chiefs. The former sailed in May, 1685, with a small fleet, and landed in Argyleshire. He collected and armed a body of two thousand five hundred men; but after wandering about for a little time, his small army was at last defeated and scattered without a regular battle. Argyle himself, in attempting to escape, was taken prisoner, and carried to Edinburgh, where, after enduring many indignities with a gallant spirit, he was publicly executed June 30th.

Monmouth sailed from Holland with three ships, and landed at Lyme, in Dorsetshire, with scarcely a hundred followers, yet, so popular was his name that in four days he had assembled over two thousand horse and foot. They were, indeed, almost all of them the lowest of the people, and the declaration which he published was chiefly calculated to suit the prejudices of the vulgar, or the most bigoted of the Whig party. He called the king the Duke of York, and pronounced him a traitor, a tyrant, an assassin, and a popish usurper. He imputed to him the fire in London, the murder of Godfrey and Essex, nay, the poisoning of the late king; and he invited all the people to join in opposition to his tyranny.

Monmouth advanced without opposition to Taunton, where he took upon himself the title of king; his numbers had increased to six thousand, and he was obliged, for want of arms, to dismiss a great many who crowded round his standard.

The king's forces, under command of Feversham and Churchill, now advanced against him. Monmouth, finding that no considerable men had joined him, and that an insurrection that had been projected in the city had not taken place, and hearing that Argyle, his confederate, was already defeated and taken, sank into such despondency that he resolved to withdraw himself, and leave his unhappy followers to their fate; but he was encouraged by the negligent disposition made by Feversham to attack the king's army at Sedgemoor, and would at least have obtained a victory but for his own misconduct and the cowardice of Lord Grey, who commanded his cavalry. After a combat of three hours the rebels gave way (July 6th), and were followed, with great slaughter. Thus was concluded, in a few

weeks, this enterprise, rashly undertaken and feebly conducted. Monmouth fled from the field until his horse sank under him. He then changed clothes with a peasant, was soon after discovered by his pursuers, and taken prisoner. At his own request he was brought before the king, and, in the most abject terms, conjured him to spare the issue of a brother who had ever been so strongly attached to his interest. After pleading piteously for his life on any terms, even offering to become a Romanist, he was tried, found guilty, and executed July 15th.

Such arbitrary principles had the court instilled into all its servants, that Feversham, immediately after the victory, hanged above twenty prisoners. But he was outdone by Colonel Kirke, a soldier of fortune who had long served at Tangiers, and had contracted, from his intercourse with the Moors, an inhumanity little known in European countries. He was selected to carry out the punishment of the rebel prisoners, and committed the most unheard-of cruelties.

He was succeeded by Judge Jeffreys, a man of brutal nature, who showed the people that the rigors of the law might equal, if not exceed, the ravages of military tyranny. He opened his court at Dorchester, Exeter, Taunton, and Wells, and, on the whole, besides those who were butchered by the military commanders, three hundred and thirty are said to have fallen by the decree of law. The whole country was strewed with the heads and limbs of so-called traitors, and many innocent persons were executed. Eight hundred prisoners were sent as slaves to the West Indies. Of all the executions of this dreadful period, those of Mrs. Gaunt and Lady Lisle, who were accused of harboring rebels, and were burned at the stake, were the most revolting.

On the assembling of Parliament they were told by the king he had been obliged to employ several Romanist officers against the rebels, and having received good service from them he could not, in honor, dismiss them; he therefore had dispensed with the test act in their favor, and desired a large sum of money to keep a body of regular troops. These statements being displeasing to the Commons they murmured and he dismissed them.

About this time Louis XIV. revoked the edict of Nantes, and many thousands of French Protestants repaired to England.

James prorogued Parliament from time to time, and ultimately it was dissolved. He issued his proclamation suspending all the penal laws in ecclesiastical affairs and granting a general liberty of conscience to all his subjects, and in order to procure a better reception for his edict of toleration, finding himself opposed by the Established Church, began to pay court to the dissenters, and he imagined that by playing one party against the other he should easily obtain a victory over both. A great number of illegal measures were adopted, a new court of ecclesiastical commission was erected, the privileges of the universities were violated, and the test act became a dead letter.

A large standing army was raised, and a camp formed at Hounslow, filled with Romanists.

Another alarming prospect was the continuance of violence and the general conduct of affairs in Ireland. Tyreconnel was now vested with full power in that country, and he had for chancellor one Filton, a man just taken from jail, and who had been convicted of forgery and other crimes, but who compensated for all his enormities by a determined zeal for the Roman Catholic religion. He was heard to say from the bench that the Protestants were all rogues, and that there was not one in forty thousand who was not a traitor, a rebel, and a villain. The Catholics were put in possession of the council and the courts of justice. The charters of the city of Dublin and all corporations were annulled and new ones granted, subjecting them to the will of the sovereign. The Protestant freemen were expelled and Roman Catholics put in their place, and the latter sect, as they were in the majority, were now invested with the whole power of the kingdom. James also sent the Earl of Castlemaine ambassador extraordinary to Rome, in order to express his obedience to the Pope, and to make advances for the reconciling his kingdom, in form, to the Roman Catholic communion. The earl was not well received, as the Pope was then engaged in a violent quarrel with the French monarch, with whom James was closely allied; he thought more of it than the conversion of England. The only acknowledgment James re-

ceived from the Pope was his sending a nuncio to England in return for the embassy. By act of Parliament any communication with the Pope was made treason, yet so little regard did James pay to the laws that he gave the nuncio a public reception, and received him in royal state at Windsor, July, 1687.

The king published a second declaration of indulgence in the year 1688, and ordered it to be read in all churches, on which the Archbishop of Canterbury and six other bishops petitioned the king against reading the order; he immediately committed them to the Tower and had them tried for libel, but they were acquitted, and the excitement was without parallel in the history of that century.

On June 10, 1688, Queen Maria gave birth to a son, who was afterward known as the Pretender, James Francis Edward. The popular opinion was that the queen's pregnancy was a sham and the child a supposititious one. As this event was impatiently longed for, not only by the king and queen, but all zealous Catholics, as, without a direct heir, the crown would pass to the Prince and Princess of Orange, two zealous Protestants, who would soon change everything. Vows were accordingly offered at every shrine for a male heir, and pilgrimages undertaken.

In proportion as this event was agreeable to the Catholics it was disgusting to the Protestants, for depriving them of the pleasing prospect with which they had flattered themselves; but this event hastened the revolution.

The foreign policy of England was made subservient to France, because the support of that country was necessary to James for the success of his home policy.

The Prince of Orange, ever since his marriage to the Princess Mary, had maintained a very prudent course; he made it a maxim to concern himself as little as possible in English affairs, and never in any way to take part with any of the factions, or give umbrage to the prince who filled the throne. His inclination and interest led him to employ his time with continental affairs, and to oppose the encroachments of the French king. By this conduct he gratified the prejudices of the whole English nation, but as he had crossed the inclinations of Charles, who

sought peace by compliance with France, he had much declined in the favor and affections of that monarch.

On James's accession a good understanding existed between them, and on Monmouth's invasion he immediately despatched six regiments of British troops in the Dutch service, and offered to take the command of the king's forces against the rebels.

However little he might approve of James's administration he always kept a total silence on the subject, and it was from the application of James himself that William first openly took any part in English affairs.

The prince sent over Zuytlestein, an officer of his court, to congratulate the king on the birth of his son, who brought back to William invitations from most of the great men in England, the Earls of Shrewsbury, Devonshire, Nottingham, Dorset, and Danby, the Duke of Norfolk, Lord Lumley, Henry Sidney, Edward Russell, and Henry Compton, the suspended Bishop of London, to assist them by his arms in the recovery of their laws and liberties.

The prince was easily engaged to yield to the applications of the English, and to embrace the defence of a nation, which, during its present fears and distresses, regarded him as its sole protector.

The great object of his ambition was to be placed at the head of a confederate army, and by his valor to avenge the injuries which he, his country, and his allies had sustained from the haughty Louis.

James was warned about what was going on by Louis, and was offered the assistance of a French fleet and any required number of troops for his security, which was rejected by him.

Meanwhile a declaration from the Prince of Orange was scattered over the kingdom and met with general approbation. All the grievances of the nation were there enumerated, as well as the examination into the proofs of the Prince of Wales's legitimacy.

So well concerted were the prince's measures that in three days four hundred transports were hired, the army, artillery, and stores were embarked, and the prince set sail from Helvoetsluys with a fleet of nearly five hundred vessels and an army

of fourteen thousand men, and on November 5, 1688, safely landed in Torbay.

The prince marched his army to Exeter, where he published his declaration. The whole country was so terrified by the executions that followed Monmouth's rebellion that for several days no one ventured to join him. The Bishop of Exeter, in a fright, fled to London and carried to court the first intelligence of the invasion.

The first person who joined the prince was Major Barrington, and he was quickly followed by the gentry of the counties of Devon and Somerset; by degrees they came from other counties, until the whole country was up in arms and had declared for him.

But the most dangerous symptom was the disaffection which crept into the army; the officers all seemed disposed to prefer the interest of their country to the principles of honor and fidelity to the king. Whole regiments joined the prince, and even men who had been raised to power and dignity by James deserted his standard.

The king arrived at Salisbury, the headquarters of his army, where he received the fatal intelligence of the desertion of so many of his troops, and he soon discovered symptoms of discontent among those who were with him, and he resolved on immediately retiring toward London. On his arrival there he called a meeting of all the peers and prelates then in the city, and followed their advice in calling a new parliament and in sending commissioners to treat with the Prince of Orange, who declined a personal interview, but sent the Earls of Oxford and Clarendon to treat with them. The terms which he proposed implied the present assumption of the sovereignty, and he immediately marched on London.

Hull, Newcastle, Oxford, and other places of importance declared for the prince, and every day many persons of distinction joined his standard.

The contagion of mutiny and disobedience had also reached Scotland. The populace rose in arms, and the Privy Council, instead of their former submissions to James, now applied to the Prince of Orange as the restorer of law and liberty.

Even Prince George of Denmark and his wife, the Princess Anne, abandoned the king.

The queen, seeing the fury of the people, and knowing how much she was the object of general hatred, was struck with terror, and by the king's advice departed to France with her son, the young Prince of Wales, and a few faithful followers.

The king, every moment more and more alarmed, and not daring to place his trust in any one, determined to seek safety in flight, and in the night-time, accompanied only by Sir Edward Hales, departed to take passage on a ship waiting for him near the mouth of the river. But he was seized by the inhabitants of Feversham before he could embark, and sent prisoner to London, much to the chagrin of the prince. He was there imprisoned in Whitehall, where he was given the opportunity he desired, and succeeded this time in embarking on board a frigate waiting to receive him. He arrived safely in Picardy, whence he hastened to St. Germain, and was received by Louis with the greatest consideration, sympathy, and regard. Thus ended the reign of James II., December 11, 1688.

By the temporary dissolution of the government the populace were masters. They immediately rose in tumult and destroyed all the mass-houses, and even attacked the houses of the Florentine and Spanish ambassadors.

In this extremity the peers and bishops who were in town, being the only authority of the state, assembled in council, and chose the Marquis of Halifax as President. They gave directions to the mayor and aldermen for the protection of the city; they issued orders to the fleet and army, which were readily obeyed, and they made application to the Prince of Orange to assume the authority for the preservation of order, and whose success they joyfully congratulated.

Through his courage and ability, seconded by surprising good fortune, the prince had effected the deliverance of the kingdom with very little effusion of blood, and had dethroned a great prince, supported by a formidable fleet and a numerous army; still the most difficult task remained—the obtaining for himself the crown. Some lawyers could think of no expedient, but that the prince should claim the crown by right of conquest,

and should immediately assume the title of sovereign and call a parliament, which, being legally summoned, by a king in possession, could ratify whatever had been transacted before they assembled. But this measure being destructive of the principles of liberty, the only principle on which his throne could be established, was prudently rejected by the prince, and, finding himself possessed of the good-will of the nation, he resolved to leave them entirely to their own guidance and discretion.

At length, as a judicious expedient, it was determined that all the members who had seats in the parliaments of Charles II. (the only parliaments whose elections were considered free), should be invited to meet, and to them were added the mayor, aldermen, and fifty of the Common Council of London. This was regarded as the most popular representation of the people that could be summoned in the present emergency, and circular letters were accordingly issued to the counties and corporations of England.

A profound tranquillity prevailed throughout the land, and the prince's administration was everywhere submitted to.

The parliament convention having assembled and having passed a vote of thanks to the Prince of Orange, it was then resolved, that, "King James II. having endeavored to subvert the constitution of the kingdom by breaking the original contract between king and people, and having, by the advice of the Jesuits and other wicked persons, violated the fundamental laws, and withdrawn himself out of the kingdom, has abdicated the government, and the throne is thereby vacant."

After several days' discussion a suitable bill was at last enacted, and passed both houses, in which they settled the crown on the Prince and Princess Mary of Orange, the sole administration to remain with the prince, the Princess Anne of Denmark to succeed after the death of the Prince and Princess of Orange, her posterity after those of the princess, but before those of the prince by any other wife.

The convention also defined the powers of the royal prerogative, which were more narrowly circumscribed, and more exactly defined than in any former period of the English government.

James abdicated the throne December 11, 1688, after a reign

of three years, and died in exile at St. Germain, France, September 16, 1701, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, leaving two daughters, Mary and Anne, and one son, James.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—France: Louis XIV.; Emperor of the West: Leopold I.; Spain: Charles II.



William III.

WILLIAM HENRY, of Nassau, Prince of Orange, Stadtholder of Holland, was born at the Hague, November 4, 1650. He was the son of William II., Prince of Orange, and his wife the Princess Mary, eldest daughter of Charles I., King of England. The House of Orange had long sought to obtain supreme power over Holland, but owing to the death of William II., ten days before the birth of his son, those projects were for a time put a stop to, and threw the power into the hands of the republican party, as there was no member of the Orange family of sufficient influence to be elected Stadtholder, or to maintain its policy. For years that party was depressed, the republic being governed by Jan De Witt, Grand Pensionary.

The attack on Holland by France and England in 1672 changed everything. The Prince of Orange was immediately and unanimously appointed captain-general and admiral-in-chief of the United Provinces.

In the long and severe conflict that ensued the allies were at first successful, but the ability of William as a general, and still more as a diplomatist, detached England from the alliance and brought her over to the side of the Dutch, which led to the honorable peace of Nimeguen in 1678.

In November, 1677, William married his cousin Mary, eldest daughter of James, Duke of York, afterward James II. The

union was very popular in both countries, the prince being considered the natural head of the Protestant party, and his wife being expected to succeed to the English throne. The life-long policy of William was already indicated, which was to lessen the power of France, which, under Louis XIV., had become dangerous to all Europe, and the most dreaded foe to Protestantism. He consequently strove to sever the relations between England and France, a design approved of by most Englishmen.

A breach, however, was inevitable between him and his father-in-law whenever the full bearing of his plans should become known to the latter.

Mary II., eldest daughter of James II. and his wife, Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon, was born at Kensington Palace, April 30, 1662, her father, at the time of her birth, being Duke of York and heir-presumptive to the throne.

She was educated at Richmond Palace with her sister, Anne, her teacher being Richard Compton, Bishop of London, and was well informed for those times. She married William, Prince of Orange, November 4, 1677, an alliance which was very popular with the English people.

Mary's father, as heir-presumptive to the British crown, was an object of jealousy to all Protestants, except the high churchmen, and even they saw with pleasure that his heir, the Princess of Orange, was strongly attached to the Church of England.

William was jealous of his wife's position, as, should she succeed to the throne, she would be his superior in rank and power, and should she die before him, and childless, the throne would pass to her sister Anne. William stood next in the order to Anne, and all hope of Charles II. having legitimate offspring had long been abandoned.

William was not a faithful husband, but the personal difficulties between him and his wife were removed before those of a political character were known to her. Burnet, afterward Bishop of Salisbury, effected a complete reconciliation between them, the princess pledging herself to surrender all power to her husband should circumstances ever place her on the British throne.

When William found himself obliged to take the leadership of that comprehensive opposition party which was formed in England against the king, in 1688, he was strenuously supported by his wife against her father. The latter, since her marriage, had never treated her well, and had used some of her friends harshly and illegally ; and Mary shared in the common belief that the Prince of Wales, born in 1688, was a supposititious child, who had been brought into the royal family to prevent her from ever enjoying her inheritance.

She acquiesced in the plan for the invasion of England, and when the Earl of Danby sought to obtain the throne for her, on the ground that there had been a demise of the crown and she was the next heir, she wrote him an earnest reprimand, declaring that she was the prince's wife, and that she had no other wish than being his subject ; that the most cruel injury that could be done to her would be to set her up as his competitor, and that she never could regard any person as her true friend who took such a course.

Could William have had his way, he would have reigned alone, and Mary would have been only queen-consort, but the opposition to this plan was so great that he never pressed it.

The Convention Parliament declared William and Mary King and Queen of England on February 13, 1689, Mary having arrived the day previously.



William III. and Mary II.—A.D. 1689-1702.

William was born at the Hague, November 4, 1650.

Married Mary, November 4, 1677.

Mary was born at St. James's Palace, April 30, 1662.

William and Mary were crowned April 11, 1689.

William died at Kensington, March 8, 1702.

Mary died at Kensington, December 28, 1694.

WILLIAM began his reign with a proclamation confirming all Protestants in the offices they enjoyed on the first day of December last past. Then he chose the members of his council who were staunch to his interest, except the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Earl of Nottingham, and they were admitted to propitiate the church party, which it was not thought advisable to provoke. Nottingham and Shrewsbury were appointed Secretaries of State; the Privy-seal was bestowed on the Marquis of Halifax, and the Earl of Danby was created President of the Council. These two noblemen enjoyed a large share of the king's confidence, and Nottingham was useful as head of the church party; but the chief favorite was Bentinck, first commoner on the list of privy councillors, as well as Groom of the Stole and Privy Purse. The treasury, admiralty, and chancery were put in commission; twelve able judges were chosen.

The first resolution taken in the new council was to convert the convention parliament into a parliament, that the new settlement of the crown might be strengthened by a legal sanction, which was now supposed to be wanting, as the assembly had not been convoked by the king's writ of summons, but that he should now, by his own authority, change the convention

into a parliament by going to the House of Peers with the usual state of a sovereign, and there deliver a speech from the throne.

This expedient was accordingly carried out, and both houses met on February 13, 1689. The king assured Parliament that he should never take any step that would diminish the good opinion they had formed of his integrity.

He told them that Holland was in such a situation as required their immediate attention and assistance; that the state of affairs at home likewise demanded their serious consideration; that a good settlement was necessary, not only for the establishment of domestic peace, but also for the support of the Protestant religion abroad; that the affairs of Ireland were too critically situated to admit the least delay in their deliberations. He therefore begged they would be speedy in concerting such effectual measures as should be judged indispensably necessary for the welfare of the nation.

The Commons having returned to their house, a vote of thanks was passed for the king's speech, and a long discussion ensued. A bill was at once introduced for preventing all disputes in the future concerning the legality of the present Parliament, which immediately passed both Houses, and received the king's assent.

James, before the revolution, had called into England four Scotch regiments, and they still remained in England. (One of them is to-day in the British army, and is known as the 1st Royals, or Royal Scots.) They had served in Germany with distinction, and had strictly preserved their nationality, and had always been commanded by a Scotchman, and were devotedly attached to James as VII. of Scotland. William had no authority over them, but he appointed Marshal Schomberg, a Frenchman, as Colonel in command, and ordered them to embark for Holland, which they refused to do, and started on their return to Scotland. William sent one of his Dutch generals, with an overwhelming force, after them. The brave Scots were outnumbered five to one, and were obliged to surrender. Officers and men were tied together, brought back to London, and then shipped to Holland more like convicts than

soldiers. Dutch soldiers were then brought over to garrison England, and English soldiers were sent to fight and perish in William's foreign wars.

William and Mary were crowned on April 11, 1689, by the Bishop of London, at the king's desire, instead of Sancroft, the Archbishop of Canterbury, and next day the Commons, in a body, waited on the king and queen at Whitehall with an address of congratulation.

Parliament voted money to indemnify the Dutch for the expenses incurred for William's expedition to England, amounting to £600,000; they also voted for raising and equipping an army of twenty-two thousand men, and the building and equipping a numerous fleet, but they only provided for six months' sustenance of the men, hoping that the reduction of Ireland might be finished in that time.

An act was passed under the title, "For exempting their majesties' Protestant subjects, dissenting from the Church of England, from the penalties of certain laws." A revenue bill was also passed providing for the expenses of the civil government.

It was now judged expedient to pass an act for settling the succession of the crown, according to the former resolution of the convention.

A bill for this purpose was brought into the Lower House, with a clause disabling Papists from succeeding to the throne; to this the Lords added, "or such as should marry papists," absolving the subjects in that case from their allegiance.

The Bishop of Salisbury, by the king's direction, proposed that the Princess Sophia, Duchess of Hanover, and her posterity should be nominated in the act of succession, as the next Protestant heirs, failing issue of the king and Anne, Princess of Denmark. This bill was opposed in the Lower House by those who wished well in secret to the late king and his heirs, and by others who wished to see monarchy totally abolished in England by the death of the three persons already named in the bill of succession. At length the bill was dropped for a time, owing to the Princess Anne being safely delivered of a son, July 27th, who was christened by the name of William,

and afterward created Duke of Gloucester. William dissolved Parliament on February 6, 1690.

England joined a coalition which William, as Stadtholder of Holland, had formed with Austria, Spain, and other states, against France, and on April 16th a motion was made in Parliament, requesting the king to take measures against the encroachments of France in the late years, and particularly to prevent the latter country from supplying the rebels in Ireland with men, money, and arms; and on May 7, 1689, William declared war against that country, charging Louis with making war on the allies of England; with having encroached on the fisheries of Newfoundland; invaded the Caribbee Islands; taken forcible possession of New York and Hudson's Bay; made depredations on the English at sea; persecuted English subjects on account of their religion, and for having sent support to the rebels in Ireland.

Having so far described the revolution in England, we must now briefly explain the measures taken in Scotland toward the establishment of William on the throne of that kingdom.

A meeting of the Convention was called at Edinburgh, for March 14, 1689. The Duke of Hamilton, and all the Presbyterians, declared for William. The partisans of James were headed by the Earl of Balcarras, and Graham, Viscount of Dundee. The first dispute turned upon the choice of a president. The friends of the late king set up the Duke of Athol in opposition to the Duke of Hamilton, but the latter was elected by a large majority.

Letters were presented from King William and King James. The former exhorted the Convention to concert measures for the settlement of the peace of the kingdom upon a solid foundation, and to lay aside animosities and factions, which served only to impede that salutary settlement.

James promised to give them speedy and powerful assistance that would enable them to defend themselves from any foreign invasion, and offered pardon to all those who should return to their duty before the last day of the month, and threatened to punish rigorously all such as should stand out in rebellion against him and his authority.

This address produced very little effect in favor of the unfortunate exile.

The Convention then approved and recognized, by a solemn act, the conduct of the nobility and gentry who had entreated William to take the administration upon him, and acknowledged their obligation to the Prince of Orange, who had prevented the destruction of their laws and religion, and besought his highness to assume the reins of government of that kingdom; they then despatched this request by the hands of Lord Ross.

After the departure of Lord Ross the Convention appointed a committee, consisting of eight lords, eight knights, and as many burgesses, to prepare the plan of a new settlement. They made a report that the throne was vacant, and proposed that it should be filled by William and Mary, King and Queen of England, which was received, voted for, and carried. An act for such settlement was accordingly prepared, and on April 11, 1689, it was approved of and solemnly proclaimed at the Market Cross of Edinburgh, by the Lord Provost, and on May 11th, the coronation oath was administered at Whitehall by the Earl of Argyle.

There was, however, in Scotland, a strong party in favor of James, headed by the Duke of Gordon, and supported by the Archbishop of Glasgow, the Earl of Balcarras, Viscount of Dundee (Claverhouse), and others.

Dundee succeeded in raising between two and three thousand Highlanders, with whom he defeated, at Killiecrankie, May 26, 1689, the king's forces of double the number; but Dundee received a mortal wound in the action, and with him expired all James's hopes in Scotland.

The Highlanders, dispirited by the loss of their leader, dispersed after a few skirmishes, and the Duke of Gordon, having surrendered Edinburgh Castle, on June 13th, the whole country was reduced to obedience.

In Ireland, Tyreconnel was still Lord Deputy. His government had been marked by violence toward the Protestants: many towns were deprived of their charters, and the public offices were filled with Roman Catholics.

Alarmed, however, at William's success, he had intimated his

willingness to surrender Ireland to any force respectable enough to justify the act; an offer which William neglected by the advice of Halifax, who represented to him that Ireland formed the only pretext for keeping an army on foot.

While he was in this state of doubt, Tyrconnel received a letter from James announcing that he was about to sail from Brest with a powerful armament, whereupon the Lord Deputy exerted himself to raise a large force of half-wild, ill-armed, and worse disciplined Irish.

James landed at Kinsale, March 12th, and was received with every demonstration of joy. Louis XIV. had furnished him with fourteen ships of the line, six frigates, and three fire-ships, but the whole land-force which he brought with him consisted of one thousand two hundred of his own subjects in the pay of France and one hundred French officers.

At Cork James was met by Tyrconnel, whom he raised to the rank of duke. The sight of the troops that were to fight for his cause was not calculated to inspire him with any very sanguine hopes of success. Scarcely two in a hundred were provided with muskets fit for service; the rest were armed with clubs and sticks tipped with iron. More than one hundred thousand of this rabble were on foot, but he found himself obliged to disband most of them, and retained only thirty-five regiments of infantry and fourteen regiments of horse. His whole artillery consisted of twelve field-pieces and four mortars.

After summoning a parliament to meet at Dublin, May 7th, James set out for his army in the North, where Londonderry was invested.

That place and Enniskillen, being inhabited by Protestants, were the only towns in Ireland that declared for King William. Lundy, the Governor of Londonderry, had sent a message to James's headquarters, with assurances that the place would be surrendered on the first summons; but his treachery was fortunately discovered, and it was with difficulty he escaped with his life by letting himself down from the walls in the disguise of a porter.

James, who had ridden up with his staff to within a short

distance of the gates, was saluted with the cry of "no surrender," and, at the same time, a discharge from the fortifications killed an officer by his side.

The army of James was ill-provided with materials for a siege, and after some fruitless assaults it was turned into a blockade. He now returned to Dublin, in order to meet the Parliament; he was induced to pass several injudicious acts, especially one to repeal all acts of settlement, thus subverting at a blow all the English property in the country, as well as a general bill of attainder, comprehending more than two thousand persons; and his scheme for replenishing his coffers by an issue of base coin occasioned universal disgust.

In June, Marshal de Rosen was appointed to take command of the besieging army of Londonderry.

The siege lasted one hundred and five days, and was one of the most memorable in the history of Britain. The garrison had been reduced from seven thousand to three thousand men, when it was relieved by Kirke with three ships, July 30th. The same day Lord Mountcashel had been completely routed by the Protestants of Enniskillen at Newton Butler, and he himself wounded and taken prisoner.

To add to James's misfortunes, Schomberg landed with ten thousand men near Donaghadee, on the coast of Down, August 12th. Carrickfergus surrendered to him after a short siege, and was treated with great cruelty. He then encamped in the neighborhood of Dundalk, the Duke of Berwick, James's natural son, retiring on his approach. James, having in vain endeavored to draw him to a battle, closed the campaign of 1689 by retiring into winter quarters at Atherdee.

The new parliament that met in March was composed chiefly of Tories. William announced his intention of passing over to Ireland, and a supply of £1,200,000 was unanimously voted. Parliament, having reversed the attainders of Lord Russell, Lady Lisle, Sidney, and others, adjourned until October.

William arrived at Carrickfergus on June 14, 1690, and proceeded to Schomberg's headquarters at Lisburn. His army amounted to about thirty-six thousand men, variously composed of English, Dutch, Germans, and other foreigners.

On his approach, the Irish army retired to the south bank of the Boyne, which is steep and hilly, and had been fortified with entrenchments. When James joined them, there were ten thousand French troops under Lauzun. His whole army amounted to about thirty thousand men, and though his force was thus considerably inferior to that of William's, he was induced, by the strength of the position, to hazard a battle.

On the morning of July 1st James drew up his troops in two lines, his left being covered by a morass, while in his rear was the village of Dromore. William attacked the enemy in three lines, and was successful at all points. The Irish horse alone made some resistance; the foot fled without striking a blow. James fled from his army at the pass of Dulceek, and made the best of his way to Dublin; he then hastened to Kinsale, where he got on board a French frigate, and arrived at Brest July 9th.

This engagement, celebrated as the battle of the Boyne, decided the fate of James, though the loss on both sides was small, the Irish being about one thousand five hundred, while William's loss was under five hundred.

The king arrived in Dublin a few days after his victory, and treated the inhabitants with great harshness. He then marched southward, took Wexford, Clonmel, Waterford, Duncannon, and laid siege to Limerick, but having been repulsed in an assault, and the rains setting in, he found it necessary to raise the siege, and early in September he left Ireland for London.

Soon after his departure Marlborough landed near Cork with five thousand men, and having received some reinforcements, captured the town after a short siege. He next took Kinsale, after a desperate resistance, and, as the winter was approaching, he then returned to England, from which he had been absent only five weeks.

While William was in Ireland a naval engagement took place off Beachy Head on June 30th, between the combined Dutch and English fleets, commanded by Admiral Herbert, and the French fleet under Admiral Tourville, in which the French were victorious. William was incensed against Herbert on account of the losses suffered by the Dutch, and denounced him to Parliament. He was tried by court-martial and honorably acquitted,

but the king deprived him of his command and forbade him his presence.

William found it an easier task to unite the councils of Europe against the common enemy than to conciliate and preserve the affections of his own subjects, among whom he began visibly to decline in popularity. Some were dissatisfied with his measures, and a great number, even those who exerted themselves for his elevation, had conceived a dislike to him from his personal conduct, which was very unsuitable to the manners and customs of the English people. Instead of mingling with the nobility in social amusements and familiar conversation, he maintained a disagreeable reserve which had all the air of sullen pride; he spent his time chiefly in the closet, retired from all communication, or among his troops in the camp he had formed at Hounslow.

His constitution was weak, and his ill-health and natural aversion to society produced a peevishness which was most displeasing to those who were obliged to be near him.

Parliament was reopened on October 2, 1690, by the king. In the speech from the throne he told both Houses what he had done toward the reduction of Ireland; spoke of the bravery of the troops; told them the supplies were not equal to the demands of the government, and represented the danger to which the nation would be exposed unless the war was prosecuted with vigor.

In answer to the speech both Houses presented addresses to the king and queen, congratulating him upon his courage and conduct in the field, and her fortitude and sagacity at the helm, in times of danger and disquiet; and the Commons, pursuant to an estimate laid before them, voted a supply of £4,000,000 for the maintenance of the government.

As Sancroft, the Archbishop of Canterbury, and six of the bishops still refused to take the oath of allegiance, they were deprived of their sees, and Tillotson, Dean of St. Paul's, succeeded Sancroft as Archbishop and Primate.

William went to the House of Lords to give the royal assent to a bill for doubling the excise. He told the Parliament that the posture of affairs on the continent required his presence at

the Hague; that therefore they ought to lose no time in perfecting such other supplies as were still necessary for the maintenance of the army and navy, and he reminded them of making some provision for the civil government.

Two bills were accordingly passed for granting to their majesties the duties on goods imported for five years, and these, with the mutiny bill, received the royal assent, and on January 5, 1691, the king prorogued Parliament. He told them it was high time for him to depart for Holland, recommending unanimity, and assured them of his particular favor and protection. Having settled the affairs of the nation he embarked at Gravesend ten days after with a numerous retinue, and set sail for Holland, under convoy of twelve ships of war, arriving at the Hague after a tempestuous passage, and was received by the several states and the people with great joy.

He assisted at a congress of the confederate princes, where he represented to them the dangers to which they were exposed from the power and ambition of France, and the necessity of acting with vigor and despatch, and promised to assist them in every way with men and money, and that he would soon return at the head of his troops to fulfil his promise.

William returned to England, arriving at London April 4, 1691. His first business was to settle the operations for the ensuing campaign in Ireland, where General Ginkell exercised supreme command. He then manned his fleet by dint of pressing sailors, to the great annoyance of commerce, and returned to Holland, where he spent the summer of 1691, conducting the campaign against Louis XIV., returning to England in October.

During the king's absence the government received information of a plot, and the Earls of Marlborough, Huntingdon, and Searsdale were apprehended and sent to the Tower on the information of one Young, a man of infamous character, then in Newgate on a charge of forgery. As the government suspected Marlborough they encouraged Young, paid his fine and released him from prison, but his falsehood was discovered and the prisoners were discharged.

General Ginkell commenced his campaign in Ireland May,

1691. He gave the Catholic rebels to understand that he was authorized to treat with them if they were inclined to return to their duty. Both armies then took the field, with varied success, but in the end the rebels were entirely subdued, and on October 4, 1691, a capitulation was executed, extending to all the places in the kingdom that were then in the hands of the Irish, and the Roman Catholics were restored to the enjoyment of their liberty and religion which they possessed in the reign of Charles II.

Quiet was now restored in Scotland. Since the death of Dundee the Highlanders had no capable leader, and the measures taken for peace in the north, which led to the massacre of the Macdonalds at Glencoe, has left a stain on William's reputation.

Parliament had voted an army of sixty-five thousand men, forty thousand of whom were to serve beyond sea, and the navy was brought to a greater efficiency than at any previous period since the revolution.

The judges were made independent of the crown as to their terms of office, and could not be arbitrarily removed, and their pay was fixed at £1,000 per annum.

King James now published a declaration, which was not suppressed by the queen.

In it there was not a word of regret for the past; not a word that could hold out a prospect of amendment for the future; it breathed vengeance against nobles and prelates who were named, and threatened whole classes with punishment as guilty rebels, especially the judges who had convicted Jacobites, and those who had offered indignities to him. Such were the threatenings of the exiled king, and these threats gave evidence of what might be expected of him when he returned at the head of a French army, which he had induced Louis to hazard the chance of landing in England. Louvois, the French war minister, who had previously opposed the invasion, being dead, the French king was now free to assist him with ten thousand French troops, and the Irish regiments which had entered the service of France.

A camp was formed at La Hogue, and James announced

“that as the most Christian King Louis had now lent us so many troops as may be abundantly sufficient to untie the hands of our subjects and make it safe for them to return to their duty and repair to our standard.”

On April 24th James joined his camp in Normandy; he not only relied on the French and Irish army, but upon the defection of the English fleet, as not only the admiral but several of the superior officers had been tampered with by his agents, but they had all become disgusted with his insane declaration which he had published, and were now true to their king and country. On May 15, 1692, the English fleet was at St. Helen's, where it was joined by the Dutch ships, the whole force amounting to ninety sail of the line. Tourville was in command of the French fleet off La Hogue, where the transports lay receiving the troops for the invasion of England.

The two fleets met off La Hogue on the morning of May 19th. Tourville immediately bore down upon the enemy, although nearly double his number, but believing in the defection in the English fleet, thought he would have an easy victory; but it was nowhere to be seen, and to vindicate their honor from such a stain which had been cast on them, the commanders urged their men, and they became invincible; the battle lasted five hours, and the victory was complete. Tourville, with his ships and transports that escaped capture, now lay in the Bay of La Hogue, protected by the forts and batteries, with the army of James close at hand. On May 23d Admiral Rooke led a flotilla of two hundred boats and numerous fire-ships into the bay. The ships and batteries opened fire on them without much effect; they continued to advance; the French crews abandoned their ships, the English sailors boarded and set fire to them; the following morning another flotilla entered the bay and completed the work of destruction, until the whole fleet was destroyed, and the hopes of James blasted.

On the news of the victory reaching England, Queen Mary made a vow that their Palace of Greenwich, then building, should be converted into a retreat for disabled seamen who had suffered in the service of their country, which vow was kept to the letter, and which Englishmen look on with pride at the

present time as the noble asylum for the disabled mariners of England.

When the news of the victory of La Hogue reached William he was in command of the allied armies encamped in the neighborhood of Namur, then besieged by the French, and which fell on May 30th, William receiving censure for allowing the place to be taken almost within sight of his army. He was also defeated at Steinkirk on August 3d following, and returned to England on October 18th, where the outward signs of welcome were bestowed on him, but there were many symptoms of political and social troubles which made sober men uneasy.

The queen had, just previous to William's return, issued two proclamations, one for the discovery of seditious libellers, the other for the apprehension of highwaymen, and William took strong measures to put down these enormities. Many highwaymen were discovered and executed, but the libellers worked their secret presses without much injury to themselves or the government.

Parliament was opened by the king on November 4, 1692. He thanked the House for their large supplies, but would be compelled to ask them for a still further supply to maintain a force by sea and land, which it was not possible to avoid without exposing the kingdom to ruin and destruction, and he hoped for their advice and assistance, which had never failed him.

The House of Commons set about giving advice, but it did little more than display ill-humor as to the conduct of the war. Several important measures were passed during this session, among them the bill originating the present national debt of Great Britain, entitled "An Act to enable such persons as shall voluntarily advance the sum of £1,000,000 toward carrying on the war against France," etc. The money was speedily subscribed, as the industry of the people had created capital which was now seeking employment.

An act was also passed as a security to the foregoing one, granting to their Majesties duties of excise upon beer, ale, and liquors; also another bill excluding all placemen from sitting in the House who should be elected after February, 1693. Previously men holding office of every kind were then in Parlia-

ment. On March 14, 1693, both Houses were prorogued, and on the 29th William again left England, arriving at the Hague in due course, where he had to unite the discordant members of the confederacy; to soothe the rivalries of princes, who each wanted some supreme command; to tempt some with money, some with promised honors.

He now took the field, and entrenched himself near Louvain to prevent an advance of the French upon Liege or Brussels, and although inferior in numbers, was resolved to hazard a battle with the enemy.

On the morning of July 29, 1693, the French advance found the allies occupying the heights of the two villages of Neerwinden and Bas-Landen, one on the right, the other on the left. The great struggle was to be the occupation of Neerwinden. The French attacked with the impetuosity of their nation, and were repulsed by the English characteristic obstinacy. For twelve hours the battle raged, twenty thousand of both armies were slain, and the victory remained with France. William fought bravely, and was among the last to quit the field. In three weeks he had gathered all his forces about him at Brussels.

He returned to England early in November, and Parliament met on the 7th of that month. A great change in the administration of the government now took place, and a Cabinet Council was formed for the first time, taking the place of the Privy Council, and becoming responsible for the acts of the government, and that cabinet was formed from the party having the majority in Parliament. A Whig ministry was formed, with the Earl of Sunderland at its head.

The king and his new ministers did not shrink from asking from the Parliament a larger supply than ever for carrying on the war. Eighty-three thousand troops were voted for the service of 1694, and the naval estimates were also largely increased. The Whig majority in the House of Commons was strong enough to bear down all unreasonable opposition, and to raise the large sums necessary. Several new taxes were imposed, such as the poll and land taxes, stamp duties, a tax on hackney coaches and lotteries. But money being still wanting, the ne-

cessity gave birth to one of the greatest establishments in the world—"The Bank of England." The capital it started with was £1,200,000, and the subscription list was filled in ten days.

The king prorogued Parliament on April 25th, and ten days after sailed for the continent, where he remained for several months, and although under arms, accomplished nothing of importance, returning to England in the fall.

Parliament was opened by the king on November 12, 1694. The supplies were voted and a bill passed for the holding of triennial parliaments.

Small-pox now raged in London. Thousands were dying from this fatal disease, then considered as terrible as the plague. The queen had been ill for two days, when it was discovered that she had taken that dreadful malady. She was immediately told of her danger; she was quite calm and resigned, and died shortly after, on December 28, 1694, in the thirty-third year of her age and fifth of her joint reign.

William III.—Alone, A.D. 1694-1702.

THE death of the queen appears to have greatly affected William, and it was some time before he recovered from the loss he had sustained.

The Princess Anne had lived on bad terms with her sister and brother-in-law, owing to the influence of Marlborough and his wife, but was now induced by Lord Sunderland to send a letter of condolence to William, and as she was a greater favorite with the nation than himself, he thought it politic to meet her advances, and he even presented her with the greater part of Mary's jewels.

The session of Parliament of 1695 was signalized by the discovery of an almost universal corruption, by which statesmen in power, and those in opposition, were moved to support or resist some measure in which large pecuniary interests were involved; and the Speaker, Sir John Trevor, and other members of the House were proved to have received bribes. They were tried, found guilty, fined, and imprisoned.

This session is also memorable for a silent revolution which

has done much for liberty and civilization—the abolition of the censorship of the press, by the Commons refusing to renew the act for restraining unlicensed printing. The abolition was soon followed by the establishment of several newspapers. The *London Gazette* was the only one previously published.

After the prorogation of Parliament William passed over to Holland early in May, 1695, and, at the head of eighty thousand men, commenced his summer campaign in the Low Countries, and after a siege of forty days Namur fell to his arms. France was now becoming exhausted by the length of the war, and Louis was anxious to conclude a peace on any decent terms, whilst William's reputation was now rising in Europe, and his success abroad confirmed his power at home; for though the Jacobite party was increasing in England, they could hardly hope to succeed without assistance from France.

After a successful campaign William returned to England October 10, 1695, and immediately issued a proclamation calling a new parliament, and to propitiate his subjects started on a journey through the country, visiting many of the principal cities and towns.

The elections proved generally favorable to the government, the Whig party acquiring considerable strength.

Parliament met on November 22, 1695. The most important part of the king's speech was on the state of the coinage, and how they could convert four millions of money, intrinsically worth only two millions, into money of a true standard. A new coinage was ordered, and a house tax and a window tax passed to make up the deficiency.

A plot was discovered, early in 1696, against the throne and the life of the king. The principal agent in it was Sir George Barclay, a Scotch officer, who received a commission from James to attempt a general insurrection in his favor. The king was to be attacked on his way to hunt in Richmond Park; but the secret was betrayed to the Earl of Portland. Five of the conspirators were condemned and executed. The king laid the whole plot before Parliament, and both houses responded with a joint address, breathing the most zealous expressions of duty and affection, and a bill was passed suspending the habeas corpus act.

Another act was passed that Parliament should not be dissolved by the death of the king; and they also resolved "That his present majesty, King William, is rightful and lawful king of these realms," and also pledging themselves to support and defend his majesty's person and government against the late King James, and all his adherents, and to defend the law of succession, passed in the first year of the reign of King William and Queen Mary.

A similar action was taken by the House of Peers. William again embarked, and arrived at the Hague May 7, 1696. On the 22d he wrote to his Secretary of State, "That the French had first taken the field, and that the allied troops were assembling as well as they could, but were unable to move for want of money to furnish the necessary supplies."

But the English treasury was empty, the country bankrupt, and no money could be raised.

Of all the sufferers in this crisis, it is impossible to conceive a man placed in a more distressing condition than the sovereign, who was to fight the battles of his country at the head of a great European confederation. On June 4th he wrote, "In the name of God determine quickly to find some credit for the troops, or we are ruined." "We are reduced to greater extremities than ever for want of money, and if we do not soon receive some remittances, the army will be disbanded," he wrote July 23d.

He again wrote, "If you cannot devise expedients to send contributions, or procure credit, all is lost, and I must go to the Indies."

The army, whose mutiny or total desertion was imminent, stood between Louis of France and the subjugation of Holland. If Holland became a province of France, England would soon be in the same condition, with a Stuart Viceroy, under the conquering Bourbon. What then remained? To found a great commercial and maritime empire in the Dutch settlements of the East, to balance the despotism of the Old World.

The heroic confidence of William had revived, he would not "go to the Indies;" the nation that God had "so often almost miraculously saved" would be saved again, even in this dire extremity.

It has been said, and with great truth, that "the vessel of our commonwealth has never been so near to shipwreck as at this period."

On August 15th the ministers made an earnest appeal to the Bank of England for a loan, which they succeeded in obtaining, and which gave temporary relief.

The taking of Carthagena in America by a French squadron, and the capture of Barcelona by a French army, inclined the Spaniards to come to terms with Louis.

William returned to England, and on October 20, 1696, Parliament met. He told both Houses "that overtures had been made to him, in order to enter into negotiations for a general peace, but I know you will agree with me, that the only way of treating with France is with our swords in our hands, and that we can have no reason to expect a safe and honorable peace but by showing ourselves prepared to make a vigorous and effectual war."

During the campaign of 1696 the French remained on the defensive, nor did anything of importance take place at sea.

Parliament now wisely passed a bill that they would not alter the standard of gold or silver in fineness, weight, or denomination, and they would make good all parliamentary funds since his majesty's succession to the throne. The effect of this measure was instantaneous; those who had been hoarding gold or silver, expecting a large premium, immediately brought it forth, trade revived, and the country was saved from ruin and bankruptcy.

The king closed the session of Parliament on April 16, 1697, and on the 26th again embarked for Holland. On his arrival there, plenipotentiaries were appointed by the several powers to discuss the terms for a treaty of peace with the ministers of France, and Newbury House, belonging to William, was selected, at Ryswick, between the Hague and Delft. At the end of June they had concluded nothing, while the French and English armies were facing each other in the neighborhood of Brussels. This state neither of peace nor war suited William's temper. As the plenipotentiaries could not come to terms with their many bows and ceremonial speeches, William thought

there could be found a man in each army who could interpret, in a straightforward manner, the wishes of their sovereigns. The Duke of Portland was thoroughly in the confidence of William. He sent a message to Boufflers, who, after the capture of Namur, had been his prisoner for a few days, requesting half an hour's private conversation with him at some place between the two armies. While Boufflers was the duke's prisoner they had formed one of those intimacies which often spring up between generous enemies.

Boufflers asked the consent of his sovereign, and received it with the condition that he should keep the appointment with all the dignity becoming a marshal of France. He was also ordered to speak as little as possible, but to draw from Portland all he could.

They met on July 8th, at the village of Brucum, standing apart from the rest of their attendants in an orchard. Portland stated his terms in plain words on the part of England and the States General, and after six interviews, the treaty of Ryswick was concluded between France, England, the States General, and Spain, on September 22, 1697, and an extended term was given to the Emperor of Germany to accede to the treaty.

On November 26th William made his entry into London. Never was public joy more manifest. The evil times had passed away, and it was now hoped that the nation would go forward in a career of prosperity under a stable government.

Well might England rejoice. Her constitutional king was at last acknowledged by the proud monarch of France, after nine years of incessant struggle against difficulties which would have crushed any common man. December 2, 1697, was a memorable day for England. It was the day of general thanksgiving for peace, and was made more memorable by the opening and dedication of the new cathedral of St. Paul's, which had been for twenty-two years gradually rising out of the ashes of the old church.

The following day William opened Parliament. In his speech the most important topic, after the affairs abroad, was for the safety of England in the future and the necessity of establishing a regular standing army; but the Commons were

not yet prepared for such a step, and voted the sum of £350,000 for the maintenance of troops for the current year.

In the summer of 1698 William took his usual journey to Holland. He was the chief agent in the negotiations providing for the Spanish succession.

Philip IV. of Spain had left three children—one son, Charles II., and two daughters. The elder, Maria Theresa, married Louis XIV. of France, and the younger, Margaret Theresa, married the Emperor Leopold I. Maria had renounced her pretensions to the Spanish succession on her marriage with the King of France. The younger sister had made no such renunciation on her marriage with Leopold; but their only child, a daughter, who was married to Maximilian Emanuel, Elector of Bavaria, was also obliged, before her marriage, to abandon all claims to the Spanish throne. But both France and Bavaria maintained that these princesses had no power to renounce the claims of their posterity. Louis therefore demanded the Spanish throne for his son, the dauphin, and the Elector of Bavaria, for his son, the electoral prince.

A third claimant was the Emperor Leopold, who, by a second marriage, had two sons—Joseph, King of the Romans, and the Archduke Charles. Leopold claimed the succession for his son Charles, on the ground that he was a lineal descendant of Philip III.

William was content to modify the claim of France by conceding to that country part of the Spanish dominions, and Louis appeared to be satisfied with this partial inheritance rather than have to fight for the whole. A treaty for the partition of Spain was accordingly negotiated, and on the death of Charles the kingdom was to be divided between the dauphin and the electoral prince; but Charles unexpectedly recovered, and the treaty and the will were defeated by the death of the electoral prince at Brussels, February 8, 1699.

The new parliament assembled December 6, 1698, and exhibited strong symptoms of discontent. It insisted on the reduction of the army to seven thousand men, and it was also voted that they should be natives of the British dominions, which gave great annoyance to the king.

The young Duke of Gloucester, the only surviving child of the Princess Anne of Denmark, died on July 30, 1700, in the eleventh year of his age.

For a couple of years William passed the most of his time in disputes with Parliament, partly on account of their wish to disband the army and navy, and he was much engaged in continental diplomacy, his chief object still being to check the power of France and strengthen that of the Netherlands.

A new parliament met February 6, 1701, under new ministerial influence. The speech from the throne touched particularly upon the death of the Duke of Gloucester, which made it absolutely necessary that there should be a further provision for the succession of the crown in the Protestant line; and the house passed the resolution "that they would stand by and support his majesty and his government, and take such effectual measures as may best conduce to the interest and safety of England, the preservation of the Protestant religion, and the peace of Europe;" and on March 3d that part of the king's speech regarding the succession was brought before the Commons, and after a protracted debate, the nomination of the Princess Sophia and her descendants, after the Princess Anne and her heirs, was carried and became law. On June 24th Parliament was prorogued, and on July 1st the king embarked for Holland.

On September 16, 1701, King James II. expired at St. Germain, in the sixty-seventh year of his age. He was visited, just before his death, by the French king, Louis, who, having desired that no one should withdraw, said, "I am come, sir, to acquaint you that whenever it shall please God to call your majesty out of this world, I will take your family under my protection; I will treat your son, the Prince of Wales, in the same manner I have treated you, and acknowledge him, as he then will be, King of England." And the Prince of Wales was immediately proclaimed King of England by the title of James III., on which William ordered his ambassador to quit France.

William arrived from Holland on November 4th. On the 11th he dissolved Parliament.

The new parliament met on December 30, 1701, the king delivering the last parliamentary speech he ever made. He described the setting up of the Prince of Wales as King of England as the greatest indignity that could be offered to himself and to the nation; he then announced that he had concluded several alliances in order to avert the general calamity with which the rest of Christendom is threatened by the exorbitant power of France. "It is fit I should tell you that the eyes of all Europe are upon this Parliament; all matters are at a standstill till your resolutions are known, and therefore no time ought to be lost."

He called upon them to provide a great strength at sea and a land force that should be proportionate to the forces of the allies, and after using every argument he closed his speech with these words: "If you do in good earnest desire to see England hold the balance of Europe, and to be indeed at the head of the Protestant interest, it will appear by the right improving the present opportunity."

The Commons immediately voted a supply of £600,000; they resolved that an address be presented to the king, requesting that it be an article in the several treaties of alliance, "That no peace shall be made with France until his majesty and the nation have reparation for the great indignity offered by the French king in owning and declaring the pretended Prince of Wales King of England." They voted forty thousand men for the land forces and forty thousand for sea service.

When William went to Holland the previous summer he appeared in the last stage of bodily feebleness, but the altered spirit of the present parliament appeared to infuse new life into him; he took delight in the additions to Hampton Court, and went there once a week to hunt. It was there, on February 21st, that he fell from his horse and fractured his collar-bone. The injury was not considered serious; he was conveyed to Kensington.

On the 23d he sent a message to the Commons. He referred to a commission appointed in the first year of his reign for treating of a union of England and Scotland, and he was convinced that nothing would more contribute to the present and

future happiness of the two kingdoms than a firm and entire union between them.

This was the last public act of his life. He died March 8, 1702, with a clear and full presence of mind, and with wonderful tranquillity, in the fifty-second year of his age and thirteenth of his reign, leaving no issue, and was succeeded by his sister-in-law Anne.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—France: Louis XIV.; Emperor of the West: Leopold I.; Spain: Charles II., Philip V.; Russia: Peter the Great.

Anne—A.D. 1702-1714.

Born at St. James's Palace, February 6, 1665.

Crowned April 23, 1702.

Married George, Prince of Denmark, July 28, 1683. Issue:

William, Duke of Gloucester, died 1700.

George, died young.

Mary, died 1686.

Anne, died 1687.

Mary, died young.

Queen Anne died at Kensington, August 1, 1714, none of her issue surviving.

ANNE, second daughter of James II. and his wife, Anne Hyde, was born at Twickenham, near London, February 6, 1665. Though both her parents had joined the Roman Catholic Church, she was educated in the principles of the Church of England, and in the year 1683 she was married to Prince George, brother of Christian V., King of Denmark.

It was for some time a matter of doubt and deep anxiety what part she would take in the contest which distracted England, between her father, James II., and the party of the Prince of Orange, but the influence of the vehement Duchess of Marlborough, for whom Anne had a romantic fondness, at length made her decide the question against the promptings of filial affection.

She renounced the purpose of accompanying her father into exile, adhered to the dominant party, and by the act of settlement the British crown was guaranteed to her and her children in default of issue to William and Mary. She lived in retire-

ment until the death of William, having undergone strange vicissitudes of fortune and many mortifications during the late reign. In the meantime she had conducted herself with such discretion as left little or no pretence for censure or resentment. She was endowed with a natural good temper and disposition, which was not easily ruffled or inflamed.

She was devoted to the Church of England, from which her father had used some endeavors to detach her before the revolution. She lived in great happiness with her husband, and had borne him several children; all of them died in infancy. The friendship between her and the king and queen was only formal, but after her sister's death she avoided all unseemly differences with him.

On the death of William the Privy Council, in a body, waited on Anne and acknowledged her queen. She immediately answered them: "I think it proper, on this occasion of first speaking to you, to declare my own opinion of the importance of carrying on all the preparations we are making to oppose the great power of France, and I shall lose no time in giving our allies all assurances that nothing shall be wanting on my part to pursue the true interest of England, together with theirs, for the support of the common cause."

By a statute of 1696, which had regard to the dangers of invasion or conspiracy, it was provided that Parliament should not be dissolved by the demise of the crown, but might sit for six months, unless prorogued or dissolved.

Both houses met immediately and unanimously voted an address of condolence and one of congratulation, and on the afternoon of March 8, 1702, the queen was proclaimed. The following day the Lords and Commons attended her in a body, each with an address, congratulating her on her accession to the throne, and assuring her of their firm resolution to support her against all her enemies whatsoever. The Commons declared they would maintain the succession to the crown in the Protestant line and effectually provide for the public credit of the nation.

These addresses were graciously received by the queen, who, on March 11, went to the House of Peers with the usual solemn-

nity, where, in a speech to both houses, she expressed her satisfaction at their unanimous concurrence with her opinion expressed to the Privy Council.

She also desired they would consider the proper methods toward obtaining a union between England and Scotland. She observed to the Commons that the revenue for defraying the expenses of the civil government had expired, and she relied entirely on their affection for its being supplied in such a manner as would be most suitable to the honor and dignity of the crown. She declared it should be her constant endeavor to make them the best return for their duty and affection by a careful and diligent administration for the good of all her subjects. "As I know my own heart to be entirely English, I can very sincerely assure you there is not anything you can expect or desire from me which I shall not be ready to do for the happiness and prosperity of England, and you shall always find me a strict and religious observer of my word."

These assurances were agreeable to the Parliament, and she received the unanimous thanks of both Houses. On April 23, 1702, the queen was crowned at Westminster Abbey.

Addresses of congratulation were presented by the Lord Bishop and clergy of London, by the dissenters in and about that city, and by all the counties, cities, and towns of England. She declared her attachment to the church, and promised her protection to the dissenters, and received the compliments of all her subjects with such affability as insured their regard and affection.

The Earl of Marlborough was sent as an envoy extraordinary to the States General, and on May 4th arranged for a joint declaration of war against France by England, the States General, and the emperor, and he concerted the plan for the first warlike operations.

That day war was proclaimed with the usual solemnities in Westminster and the city of London.

Parliament was prorogued on May 25th and dissolved on July 2d. The civil list that had been granted to King William was continued to Queen Anne. Her majesty was empowered to appoint commissioners to treat for union between England and Scotland.

The Earl of Marlborough left London for the Hague on May 18th, and soon after his arrival was appointed by the allies Generalissimo of all their forces. He appears to have succeeded by common consent to the power which was wielded by King William. He went vigorously to the work before him; he drew the allied forces together, so as to be at the head of a powerful army. He carried Venloo by storm on September 18th; he besieged and took Ruremonde and Stevenswart; captured Liege by storm, October 24th, the English being the first to get upon the breach; and in a few days afterward the castle of Chartreuse was surrendered to him.

At the close of the campaign he was taken prisoner, as he was going down the river Maas, by the French, and after some detention escaped, after being plundered by those who did not know the value of the man they had taken. He arrived safely in London shortly after, and received high honors and great rewards.

The first Parliament of Queen Anne met on October 20, 1702. The Tories were now in power, and had a large majority in the House.

In answer to the speech from the throne, the majority thought it desirable to compliment the queen on the progress of the war under Marlborough, and to insult the memory of him whose firmness and perseverance had alone enabled England and Holland to hold in check the power of France. They concluded their malicious address by adding, "That as she had always been an illustrious ornament of the church, we promise ourselves, that, in her reign, we shall see it perfectly restored to its due rights and privileges."

During William's reign the Protestant dissenters, a numerous and wealthy body, had been relieved from the penalties of certain laws, but now the High Church party were for extreme measures against them, and the spirit of the time of Charles II. was roused again. One of the first proceedings of the new Commons was to bring in a bill to prevent occasional conformity; by it dissenters were prevented holding office, and other liabilities. The bill passed the Lower House by a large majority, but it was strongly opposed by the Lords; the debate con-

tinued, and conferences took place between both Houses, and at last, by the influence of the court, the bill was carried by a majority of one, the Prince of Denmark voting for it as a peer of Parliament.

George, Prince of Denmark, was invested with the title of Generalissimo of all the queen's forces by sea and land, and Lord High Admiral of England.

On December 10, 1702, the queen announced to Parliament, that for the eminent services of the Earl of Marlborough she had thought fit to grant him the title of duke, and had also granted him the sum of £5,000 per year out of the revenues of the post-office; he had previously been appointed a Knight of the Order of the Garter, and had received the title of Captain-General of her majesty's forces.

The campaign of 1703 was as barren of any signal advantages to the armies of the allies as to the arms of France. Parliament had voted an augmentation of troops, and there was no want of decision on the part of Marlborough to employ the forces of which he had the command in the manner most likely to be productive of a great result.

The Elector of Bavaria had now joined the French; had surprised the strong fortress of Ulm, and had opened the way for the armies of Louis to the centre of Germany. The French, under Boufflers, threatened Holland. Marlborough was desirous of attacking them whilst the stronger French armies were otherwise engaged. The States General pressed upon him the opportunity of securing Bonn, which capitulated to him after a short siege. Three months later Huy surrendered to the allies, but these successes were of comparatively small import.

Marlborough had matured a plan for attacking Antwerp, and carrying the war into Flanders; but, owing to dissensions among the generals and with the States General, it was abandoned, and he decided to act more independently in his next campaign. His last attack for the season was Limburg, which fell after a short siege.

On November 9th the queen opened the second session of her first Parliament. The foreign policy which she announced as-

sumed larger proportions than the object which had been originally defined for the war.

Its purpose was no longer simply "to resist the great power of France," but for recovering the monarchy of Spain from the House of Bourbon, and restoring it to the House of Austria. The queen announced that she had made a treaty for this object with the King of Portugal, and that subsidies would be required for the Duke of Savoy, who had declared his intention to join the alliance. Nearly the whole of this session was occupied with most serious disputes between the Lords and Commons, and the violent political tempests were followed by a most wonderful war of the elements. On the night of November 27, 1703, a most terrific tempest arose, and spread throughout the land, which ended in a national calamity from the amount of public and private property destroyed, and for which a general fast was observed throughout the kingdom.

The campaign of 1704 was meant by Louis XIV. to decide the great question by which Europe was agitated. Large detachments from the French army of Flanders were to be led by Marshal Villeroy; Marshal Tallard was to leave the Rhine, and advance into Ssabria, through the Black Forest; the army of Italy was to march through the Tyrol into Austria; the Hungarians, then in a state of insurrection, were to be assisted by French troops.

On May 5th, the States General, having consented that Marlborough should lead the joint forces to the Moselle, the troops began their march, and that general decided on conducting them up to the Danube, without the knowledge or consent of the allied governments. He continued his march along the Rhine, collecting the reinforcements from the allies as he went. On June 3d he passed the Neckar by a bridge of boats at Ladenburg; troops were drawing near to join him as he advanced—Dutch, Luxemburg, Hessian, and Danish—and he expected to be on the Danube in ten days. On the 10th he met Prince Eugene for the first time, and three days after was joined by the Prince of Baden. The latter asserted his claim of precedence to be with the main army as its commander, and it was at last agreed that he and Marlborough should command on alternate days,

and that Prince Eugene should return to the Rhine and command a body of thirty thousand men there—the security of the lines and the passage of the Rhine being of the greatest importance.

On July 1st Marlborough received information that an army of French and Bavarians were posted in an intrenched camp upon the Schellenberg.

Next morning Marlborough advanced on the enemy with fourteen regiments of English foot and seven of cavalry, and, after a march of fourteen miles, attacked the entrenched camp, utterly defeating the enemy. Their loss was nine thousand men, while the allies lost five thousand killed and wounded.

Marlborough then entered Bavaria, burning and destroying the whole country as he went. On August 9th he was informed that the whole Franco-Bavarian army was advancing, and he made his arrangements, collecting his different armies, with the intention of forming an encampment at Hochstadt, and on the 12th, he says, “we went to view the ground, but found the enemy had already possessed themselves of it, whereupon we resolved to attack them.”

On the night of August 12th orders were given that the allied armies should advance before break of day.

Marlborough and Eugene were sufficiently near with the advance guard by seven o'clock in the morning to take a view of the position of the Franco-Bavarian army. Their right was at the village of Blenheim, where Marshal Tallard had his headquarters; their left was at the village of Lutzingen, covering a space of over four miles, on rising ground, and covered by a wood. It was past noon before Eugene could get into position, owing to the difficulties of the ground. It was agreed by the two commanders that the battle should not commence until both were ready. The announcement from Eugene was made; Marlborough mounted his horse, and gave command for the lines to move forward to cross the Nebel, and that General Cntts should commence the attack on Blenheim. Attacks were made, repulsed, repeated again and again, until at last the enemy were completely beaten, and Marshal Tallard and a large part of his army taken prisoners, having lost fourteen

thousand left dead on the field. The loss to the allies was eleven thousand killed and wounded.

The blow to the power of France was tremendous. All the prestige of her glories under Turenne and Luxemburg was gone. "There never," says Cunningham, "was a battle fought within the memory of man wherein either the courage of the soldiers or the prudence of the generals were more conspicuous than on this day." The grief of Louis at this disgrace may be imagined. At the moment when he believed the fate of Europe was in his hands he now found himself reduced to act simply on the defensive.

The remaining part of the French army were flying through the Black Forest, and did not consider themselves safe until they had crossed the Rhine.

The 17th of August was devoted by the armies of the allies as a day of thanksgiving to the Almighty for his blessing upon their arms.

On the 20th of the same month the allies were before Ulm, which soon after surrendered. They then advanced to the siege of Landau. The defence of this strongly fortified place was obstinate, but it fell in sixty days.

Marlborough concluded a peace with the Electress of Bavaria, who was left regent, by which she agreed that all the Bavarian troops should be disbanded. He then posted to Berlin and concluded a treaty with the king. He was admitted as a prince of the Roman Empire by the Emperor of Germany, and a principality was created for him. On December 16th he arrived at the Hague, and from thence he travelled to London, which he reached on the 26th, accompanied by Marshal Tallard and other distinguished prisoners.

While Marlborough was leading the armies on the Rhine another army was operating on the Peninsula, and on August 2, 1704, Gibraltar was captured.

The following year the war was carried on in Spain by the Earl of Peterborough, to place Charles of Austria on the throne, against Philip of Bourbon, assisted by the French. Barcelona and other towns and fortifications were taken, and Charles III. was proclaimed king.

Marlborough embarked at Harwich, on March 31, 1705, for the Hague. It was a month before he could get the States General to agree to his plan of leading the English and Dutch troops to the Moselle, there to co-operate with the troops of Prince Louis of Baden, and by marching between that river and the Saar to penetrate into Lorraine, and thus carry the war into France. He crossed the Moselle on June 3d, and met the French army under Villars, but they retreated, and he formed a camp at Eft. The weather was bitterly cold, and little could be performed.

Scarcely anything was done during the whole of this campaign, owing to the divided councils of the generals commanding the allied armies. Marlborough was indignant, and sent an officer to the Hague to represent "that unless the command be more absolute in one person, we shall hardly be able to do anything. Councils of war are called on every occasion, which entirely destroys the secrecy and despatch upon which all great undertakings depend."

Writs were issued in England for a new election. The last House of violent Tories was not in harmony with the triumphant resistance to the power of France, as they were led to hope that some day the great Louis would give them back a king, with a more legitimate title, in their eyes, than any title that could be conferred by an act of settlement, and this election roused up a bitterness of party feeling that had rarely been equalled in England, and a cry was raised throughout the land of "The Church in danger." The queen had shown more favor to the Whigs, and the High Churchmen gave out the rallying-cry from their pulpits; but the Whigs conquered.

The new parliament met on October 30, 1705. In the speech from the throne the queen complained of the malicious insinuations that the Church was in danger, and said "I will always affectionately support and countenance the Church of England as by law established; I will invariably maintain the toleration; I will do all I can to persuade my subjects to lay aside their divisions, and will study to make them all safe and easy."

The Lords and Commons then agreed to the following resolution: "That the Church of England, as by law established, is

now, by God's blessing, under the happy reign of Her Majesty, in a most safe and flourishing condition, and whosoever goes about to suggest and insinuate that the Church is in danger, under Her Majesty's administration, is an enemy to the queen, the Church, and the kingdom."

The queen then issued a proclamation, declaring that "We will proceed with the utmost severity the law allows of against the authors or spreaders of the said seditious and scandalous reports, viz., that the Church is in danger."

Marlborough again left for the Hague on April 27, 1706. He wanted to go to the relief of the Duke of Savoy, and co-operate with Prince Eugene in freeing Italy from the French armies, but owing to the jealousy of the Hanoverians, Danes, and Hessians, he had to give up that idea. He consented to remain in command of the English and Dutch armies, provided his power was unfettered. To this the States consented, and the troops began to march from the Hague May 7th.

On May 23d, when the duke began his march, at three o'clock in the morning, to gain the open space between the Meuse and the Great Gheet, that position was found to be occupied by the enemy. The allies, having cleared the village of Mierdorp, formed in order of battle in the plain of Jandrincuil. The enemy was posted on eminences above the marshes, having the village of Ramillies in the centre. It was a formidable position. Marlborough advanced to the western extremity of the plain. The battle commenced. The whole French and Bavarian cavalry had every chance of taking the allied infantry in the rear, who were attacking Ramillies. When Marlborough saw the danger he put himself at the head of seventeen squadrons and charged the French cavalry. It was a fight hand to hand, to be decided by main strength rather than strategy. He cut his way through, his horse was killed under him: he remounted, and at that time a reserve came up, which decided the battle to the left. The allies were equally successful to the right and centre, above Ramillies, when the shout of victory announced that the position had been gained, which insured an ultimate success; and three hours had been occupied in these terrible encounters, but the changes of fortune had been so various, the

confusion of onset and retreat so great, the disorder attendant upon troops of all arms being mixed in one common effort so extreme, that Marlborough was compelled to form his forces again upon the ground they had won. Marshal Villeroy now endeavored to take up a new line, but was impeded by his own baggage. Before he could get his battalions formed Marlborough ordered a general advance to the sources of the Little Gheet, but before the morasses were crossed the French began to fly, and one headlong panic and slaughter closed this fearful day. Onward went the pursued and pursuers toward Louvain, and Marlborough did not halt until he reached Mildert, thirteen miles from the battle-field. The French and Bavarians went into battle with sixty-two thousand men, and lost seven thousand killed and wounded, and six thousand prisoners.

The allies had sixty thousand men, and lost nearly four thousand killed and wounded.

The artillery, baggage, and eighty standards were the spoils of the victors.

Ostend capitulated on July 7th; Menin, one of the strongest fortresses of Vanban, was carried by assault with great loss on August 22d; Dendermonde surrendered on September 5th, and the last fortress to fall was Ath, on October 4th. * Marlborough returned home to receive the thanks of Parliament and to take part in the great event of the session of 1706-7—the union of England and Scotland into one kingdom.

We must now revert for a while to the domestic affairs of the country where the important project of a union with Scotland was in agitation. That measure had occasionally attracted the attention of statesmen ever since the accession of James I.; but as the period approached when the succession to the crown was to be diverted into a new line, the necessity for it became urgent, and Anne, in her speech to her first Parliament, had recommended it as indispensable to the peace and security of both kingdoms. William had neglected to provide for the succession of the Scottish crown, and a large party in that country, headed by the Duke of Hamilton, were in favor of the Stuarts. A bill for the Hanoverian succession was rejected by the Scottish Parliament with every mark of anger and contempt; many

were for sending Lord Marchmont, its proposer, to the Castle of Edinburgh, and it was carried by a large majority that all record of it should be expunged from their proceedings. The same assembly passed what they called "An Act of Security," by which, it was provided that the Parliament should meet on the twentieth day after the queen's decease to elect a successor, who should not be the successor to the crown of England unless under conditions which might secure the honor and independence of Scotland. The queen refused her assent to this bill, but in the following year (August 5, 1704) she thought proper to allow another bill to the same effect to be touched with the sceptre, of which the main proviso was that the successor to the crown should be a Protestant of the royal line of Scotland, and at the same time not the successor to the English crown. As the house of Hanover was thus excluded, the Duke of Hamilton himself, the great promoter of the bill, seemed in a fair way to obtain the crown.

This proceeding excited great alarm in England. The House of Peers, in order to obviate its effects, resolved that no Scotchmen, not actually residing in England or Ireland, should enjoy the privileges of Englishmen till a union of the two kingdoms should be effected, or the succession made identical in Scotland and England, and the bringing of Scotch cattle into England, and of English wool into Scotland should be prohibited; and that the fleet should have orders to seize all Scotch vessels trading with France. These resolutions, which were almost equivalent to a declaration of war, were reduced into a bill; and another act was passed to appoint commissioners to treat of a union.

The Lords also addressed the queen to fortify Newcastle, Tynemouth, Carlisle, and Hull, and to call out the militia of the four northern counties, and to station an adequate number of regular troops on the Scottish borders. The Commons rejected the proposed bill on the ground that the fines levied by it rendered it a money bill; but they passed another to the same effect (February 3, 1705), which went through the Lords without any amendment.

In the following session further steps were taken to secure the succession of the House of Hanover, and a regency bill was

passed in the event of the queen's death. In April, 1706, Lord Halifax, accompanied by Clarenceux, king-of-arms, was despatched to Hanover to present the Electoral Prince with the Order of the Garter, and to convey to his family an act of naturalization. About the same time thirty commissioners, appointed by the queen, met to consider the articles of a union, with a like number from Scotland. They sat until July 23d, when the following were the more important among the articles agreed upon: That the two kingdoms should be united under the name of Great Britain; that the succession should be vested in the Princess Sophia and her heirs, being Protestants; that there should be but one Parliament of the United Kingdom, to which sixteen Scotch Peers and forty-five commoners should be elected; that there should be a complete freedom of trade and navigation throughout the United Kingdom, and a reciprocation of all rights, privileges, and advantages.

These articles were very unpopular in Scotland, but, without the succor of France, it seemed hopeless to resist them, and the reverses of Louis in the war put it out of his power to assist the Pretender.

In the Parliament, indeed, where the Peers and Commons sat in one house, a spirited opposition was led by the Duke of Hamilton and Fletcher of Saltoun; and during the progress of the debates violent tumults occurred in Edinburgh. The lower classes of Scotch, and especially the Presbyterians of the west, were almost universally opposed to the union, and offers were made to Hamilton from various quarters to march to Edinburgh and disperse the Parliament; but that nobleman, though loud in debate, was timid in action. He would not listen to such vigorous counsels, and he even shrank from an engagement which he had made with his adherents to protest against the measure and quit the Parliament in a body.

All the articles were eventually adopted by a large majority, January, 1707.

The act of union was carried through the English Parliament but with trifling opposition, and received the royal assent on March 6th. The union was appointed to commence on May 1, 1707, which was made a day of thanksgiving.

The Scottish Parliament met for the last time on March 26, 1707, and the first Parliament of Great Britain was called to meet on October 23d following.

The Order of the Thistle was revived by Queen Anne. The number of ordinary knights was limited to twelve peers of Scotland.

On December 3, 1706, a new parliament assembled. The queen, in her speech, after congratulating the nation on the glorious successes of her arms, desired the Commons would grant such supplies as might enable her to improve the advantages of this successful campaign. She told them of the treaty of union between the two kingdoms as concluded by the commissioners, and recommended despatch in public affairs, that both friends and enemies might be convinced of the firmness and vigor of their proceedings. Parliament was perfectly well disposed to comply with all her majesty's requests, and voted £6,000,000 for the services of the government for the ensuing year, and on December 31st adjourned until March for a short session; little business being before the House beyond the act of union, it was prorogued until the meeting of the Parliament of Great Britain in October.

During the year 1707, Marlborough was acting the part of a diplomat rather than a soldier. The allied armies in Spain had met with several reverses, the Spaniards now making it a question not between the houses of Austria and Bourbon, but between King Philip and the foreign enemy.

A terrible fate overtook Sir Cloudesley Shovel and his fleet on their return from the Mediterranean. The fleet sailed from Gibraltar on September 20th, consisting of fifteen sail of the line and several frigates, and on October 22d they arrived at the mouth of the channel, when, by some mistake in the course of the admiral's ship, she, with five other ships of the fleet, struck on some rocks west of the Scilly Isles, and all on board perished. The union between the two kingdoms was not working well; the general taxation being assimilated, there were perpetual differences about the collection of the excise.

The Scotch had been accustomed to have their duties farmed, and when the gauger came round the loose system would no

longer prevail, and indignation and resistance were the consequence.

The first Parliament of Great Britain met at Westminster on October 26, 1707, which was opened by the queen in due form. The supplies were granted, and debates took place in both houses on the conduct of the war; several bills were passed regarding the government of Scotland, and disputes occurred which caused the resignation of Mr. Harley, the queen's principal adviser.

In March, 1708, an attempted invasion of Scotland was made by a French fleet, having on board the Pretender, Charles Edward, and a body of troops, but owing to the vigilance of Admiral Byng and a large fleet, together with boisterous weather, the invaders returned to Dunkirk, after being tossed about for thirty days.

On May 25th the Duke of Marlborough commenced the campaign. On July 11th the most important battle of that year was fought at Oudenarde, in Flanders, with victory to the allied forces, by which the French army was lessened by twenty thousand men.

The island of Sardinia was taken by the English admiral, Sir John Lake; the capture of Minorca, and other triumphs in the Mediterranean and South America again established the naval superiority of England.

On October 28, 1708, the queen's husband, Prince George of Denmark, died of dropsy with which he had been long afflicted. He was a prince of an amiable rather than a shining character, brave, good-natured, modest, and humane, but devoid of great talents and ambition.

He had always lived in harmony with the queen, who, during the whole term of their union, and especially in his last illness, proved herself a pattern of conjugal tenderness.

The year's campaign wound up by the capture of Lille; it capitulated on December 29th; its loss to France was considered irreparable. A desire for peace was now manifest at the French court.

The first session of the second Parliament of Great Britain was opened by commission on November 16, 1708. The Whig

interest preponderated, and the session was continued until April 24, 1709.

The speech was read by the lord chancellor, recommending the vigorous prosecution of the war, asking for the usual supplies, and a further augmentation of the army, etc. The House approved of adding ten thousand men to the army, and granted £7,000,000 for carrying on the government.

The Russian ambassador having been arrested for debt, a statute was passed by which all process against an ambassador, or any of his domestic servants, should be null and void.

On June 21, 1709, the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene encamped on the plain before Lille with an army of one hundred thousand men; they then marched on Tournay, and commenced the siege. The city fell in three weeks, but the citadel held out until the end of July. During the siege the allies lost four thousand killed and wounded.

They then marched with eighty thousand men to lay siege to Mons, where they were met by Marshal Villars with an army of seventy thousand men at Malplaquet, and on the morning of September 11th the attack was made on the French, and after a most sanguinary struggle of four hours, the allies were masters of the field, amidst thirty thousand of their fellow-men killed and wounded.

In the year 1710 the popularity of Marlborough, who had been for eight years the idol of the queen, Parliament, and people, began to wane, and his duchess lost the queen's confidence.

The Tories, who now had in their ranks the ablest statesmen, and the most effective writers, increased in power, and the Whigs completed their own ruin by the prosecution of Dr. Sacheverell for preaching in favor of the divine right of kings.

Previous to the campaign of 1710 Louis made proposals for peace, through his agents at Gertruydenberg, but they did not retard the operations in the field, and Douay fell to the allied arms on June 26th. On August 29th Bethune capitulated, and the towns of Aire and St. Venant were taken without much difficulty.

In the new elections, in 1711, the Tories were successful, a new ministry was formed in which Harley and Lord Bolingbroke were chiefs, and a new favorite, Mrs. Masham, the daughter of a London merchant, reigned at court.

Marlborough left England, March 4, 1711, to resume his command of the allied armies in the Netherlands. A part of his forces had been withdrawn to take part in a hopeless renewal of the war in Spain, others were sent upon an ill-concerted expedition against Quebec. With his remaining forces he determined to invest Bouchain, a strong fortress and of great importance to the enemy, and after a long and tedious siege it fell on September 14th.

The army soon after went into winter quarters, and Marlborough came home, arriving at Greenwich November 17th.

Parliament was opened by the queen in person on December 7th. In her speech she said: "I have called you together as soon as the public affairs would permit, and I am glad that I can now tell you that, notwithstanding the arts of those who delight in war, both place and time are appointed for opening the treaty for a general peace."

Marlborough spoke in the debate which ensued, and denied emphatically the charges his enemies had made against him, and which they had embodied in the queen's speech.

The new leaders of the government were not harmonious, and though the crown had been settled in the event of the queen's death without children upon the Princess Sophia of Hanover, granddaughter of James I., yet the queen and courtiers were occupied with intrigues to give the succession to the son of James II., the Chevalier St. George.

The commissioners for examining the public accounts having discovered that the Duke of Marlborough had received an annual present of £5,000 from the contractors of bread to the army, the queen declared in council that she thought fit to dismiss him from all his employments, that the matter might be impartially examined.

Cardonnell, Marlborough's secretary, was expelled the House of Commons on a similar accusation to that against his chief. Robert Walpole was also expelled and committed to the Tower

on a charge of taking a bribe of one thousand guineas on contracts for forage made by him when Secretary at War.

Although the conference was opened at Utrecht on January 18th, the allies, as usual, took the field in the spring. The British forces in Flanders were now commanded by the Duke of Ormond, who had received instructions to avoid a battle unless he perceived a prospect of very great advantage.

Shortly afterward he separated his troops from the army of the allies, and received from Louis the surrender of Dunkirk, which had been stipulated as the condition of a cessation of arms.

After the withdrawal of the British contingents, Eugene was defeated by Marshal Villars at Denain, and several other reverses followed, so that the good fortune of the allies seemed to have deserted them with the loss of the English.

Meanwhile the negotiations were proceeding at Utrecht, the plenipotentiaries for Great Britain being the Earl of Strafford and the Bishop of Bristol, to whom Prior, the poet, was subsequently added, and a peace, known as the Peace of Utrecht, was at length signed on March 31, 1713, to the great joy of the nation. The principal articles, as between France and Great Britain, were, that Louis should abandon the Pretender, acknowledge the queen's title and the Protestant succession; should raze the fortifications of Dunkirk, and should cede Newfoundland, Hudson's Bay, and St. Christopher's.

With regard to the general objects of the alliance, it was agreed that the Kingdom of Naples, the Duchy of Milan, and the Spanish Netherlands should be assigned to the emperor; that the Duke of Savoy should possess Sicily, with the title of king; that Sardinia should be assigned to the Elector of Bavaria, with the same title; that the States of Holland should receive Namur, Charleroi, Luxemburg, Ypres, and Nieuport, in addition to their other possessions in Flanders, but should restore Lisle and its dependencies; and that the King of Prussia should exchange Orange for Upper Gueldres. Great Britain was left in possession of Gibraltar and Minorca.

At the same time a treaty of commerce between France and England was also signed.

Peace was not concluded between the emperor and France until the following year by the treaty of Rastadt.

As the treaty of Utrecht was only effected after a violent struggle between the Whigs and Tories, its merits have generally been viewed through the medium of party prejudice. It can hardly be doubted that, from the exhausted condition of France, more advantageous terms might have been exacted; they had in fact been previously offered; and the great object for which the war had been undertaken—the exclusion of the Bourbons from the throne of Spain—was frustrated.

Louis, indeed, undertook that Philip should renounce the throne of France, but at the same time acknowledged that such an act was legally invalid; while the recent death of the dauphin, of his son, and eldest grandson left only a sickly infant between Philip and the crown of France.

The manner in which the peace was concluded was, perhaps, more objectionable than the peace itself. England appeared selfishly to negotiate a clandestine treaty, and to abandon her allies in the midst of a campaign, leaving their towns and armies exposed to the fury of the enemy.

A still worse feature was the abandonment of the Catalans, who still contended heroically for their freedom. Philip, indeed, promised them an amnesty, but it was not fulfilled. On the other hand, it may be remarked that it would have been almost as impolitic to continue the war in order to set Charles upon the throne of Spain, after he had become emperor, as to leave it in possession of Philip; that the Spaniards were contented with the latter for their king, and that England had no right to control their inclinations; that the burden of the war, which had cost England nearly seventy millions, was chiefly borne by her, though she had not so direct an interest in it as the other powers; and that, on the whole, the conditions exacted from France were not disadvantageous.

It now became evident that the queen's health was fast declining, and the near prospect of her death animated the struggle between the Jacobites and the adherents of the house of Hanover. The Whigs urged the elector to a step which gave great offence to the queen. Schutz, the Hanoverian envoy, de-

manded for the Electoral Prince a writ to take his seat in the House of Lords, he having lately been created Duke of Cambridge. The queen was so enraged that she forbade Schutz to appear again at court, declared that she would suffer the last extremities rather than permit any prince of the electoral family to reside in England during her life, and wrote to the elector, to the Princess Sophia, and to the Electoral Prince, expressing her surprise at the step they had taken, and almost openly threatened that it might endanger their succession.

Shortly afterward, May 28, 1714, the Princess Sophia died suddenly in the eighty-third year of her age.

Oxford and St. John, now Viscount Bolingbroke, who had long been enemies, came this year to an open rupture. Each accused the other of being a Jacobite, and both were believed. Bolingbroke, in conjunction with Marlborough, laid a plot for the treasurer's ruin. Bolingbroke persuaded the queen that Oxford had privately forwarded the demand of a writ for the Electoral Prince, and on July 27th he was deprived of his office.

Bolingbroke had triumphed over his rival and seemed on the point of succeeding to his power. He was generally regarded as the future prime minister. Marlborough hastened from the continent to share in his triumph, when all his hopes were disappointed in a moment. The agitation of this political crisis had a fatal effect on the queen's health; the discharge from her leg, suddenly stopped, threw her into a lethargy. While she lay in this state the Duke of Shrewsbury, who was both Lord Chamberlain and Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, concerted with the Dukes of Argyle and Somerset a plan for defeating the schemes of Bolingbroke and his Jacobite confederates in the ministry. They proposed to recommend to the queen the appointment of the Duke of Shrewsbury as the fittest person to fill the office of Lord Treasurer, which was agreed to by the queen. They then proposed that the Privy Councillors, then in or about London, should be invited to attend, without distinction of party.

The council, being thus reinforced, began to provide for the security of the kingdom. Orders were immediately despatched

for several regiments to march to London, other regiments in the Netherlands were ordered to embark for England, an embargo was laid on the shipping, and directions given for equipping all the ships of war that could be soonest in a condition for service. They sent a letter to the Elector of Hanover, telling him the queen's life was despaired of, the measures they had taken, and requesting that he would, with all convenient speed, repair to Holland, where a British squadron would be waiting to receive and convey him to England in case of her majesty's decease.

The queen continued in an almost insensible condition until August 1st, when she expired, in the forty-ninth year of her age and twelfth year of her reign, and was succeeded by George Louis, Elector of Hanover, great-grandson of James I.

Anne was deficient in mental vigor; she was a pattern of conjugal affection and fidelity, a tender mother, a warm friend, an indulgent mistress, a munificent patron, a mild and merciful ruler, during whose reign no subject's blood was shed for treason.

She was zealously attached to the Church of England, unaffectedly pious, just, charitable, and compassionate. She felt a mother's fondness for her people, by whom she was universally beloved with the warmth of affection, which even the prejudice of party could not abate. In a word, if she was not the greatest she was certainly one of the best and most unblemished sovereigns that ever sat upon the throne of England, and well deserved the expressive though simple epithet, "of the good Queen Anne," the last sovereign of the house of Stuart.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—France: Louis XIV.; Emperors of the West: Leopold I., Joseph I., Charles VI.; Spain: Philip V.; Prussia: Frederick I., Frederick William I.; Russia: Peter the Great; Austria: Francis I.



THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.

A.D. 1714 to the present day.

THE house of Brunswick is one of the oldest families in Germany. The duchy formed part of Saxony when it was united by Charlemagne to the Frankish empire, and, with the other Saxon provinces, was governed successively by the princes of the house of Saxe, Billung, Supplingenburg, and Guelph.

The house of Guelph was of a mixed Italian and German origin, and in the year 1194 the city of Brunswick was given to Henry the Lion, of that family.

In 1235 the city, with its dependencies, was erected into a duchy, and Otho, Henry's grandson, became the first Duke of Brunswick. The two sons of Otho, Albert and John, reigned in common from the death of their father in 1252 to the year 1267, and then divided their inheritance. John received the

city of Hanover and the Duchy of Luneburg, Albert the Duchy of Brunswick. They were again united and divided, and at last united under Ernest the Confessor, who died in 1546. From him the duchy descended in a direct line to Ernest Augustus, Duke of Brunswick-Luneburg, and first Elector of Hanover, who died January 28, 1698, and was succeeded by his son, George Louis.

By the marriage of the Elector, Ernest Augustus, with Sophia, daughter of the Elector Palatine, Frederic V., and his wife Elizabeth, daughter of King James I. of England, his son George obtained the right to the throne of Great Britain under the title of George I.

The change of the government, which commenced at the revolution, may be considered completed by the accession of the house of Brunswick to the throne. Thenceforth the history of the United Kingdom is the record of what the majority of Parliament would or would not do, and the ministers, although nominally servants to the crown, could never after successfully struggle against the majority of Parliament, and when its views were opposed to theirs they were obliged to resign. To meet this altered state of things one man among them was appointed Premier, or head of the Cabinet, to whom all the rest were bound to give their support while in office.

George I.—A.D. 1714-1727.

Born at Osnabruck, May 28, 1660.

Crowned October 20, 1714.

Married Sophia Dorothea, daughter of the Duke of Zell, November 21, 1682.

Issue :

George Augustus, Prince of Wales.

Sophia, married Frederick William, King of Prussia.

Died at Osnabruck, June 11, 1727.

Buried at Hanover.

GEORGE LOUIS was the eldest son of Ernest Augustus, Elector of Hanover, and Sophia his wife, grand-daughter of King James I. of England. He was born at Osnabruck on May 28, 1660.

In the year 1681 the prince visited England to pay his ad-

dresses to Princess Anne, but immediately on landing he received his father's orders not to proceed in the matter. He returned home, and married in the following year his cousin, Sophia Dorothea, daughter of the Duke of Zell, who the next year bore him a son, November 1, 1683. The end of the following year a terrible tragedy occurred in the palace; the Count Königsmark suddenly disappeared, and it was said he was murdered by the prince for improper connection with the princess. George had her imprisoned in the Castle of Aldien, where she remained over thirty years, until her death; but she constantly asserted her innocence.

The prince served in the armies of the empire, against both the French and Turks, and succeeded to the Electorate of Hanover on the death of his father in 1698.

In 1700 he led a force, in aid of the Duke of Holstein, against Denmark and Sweden, and raised the siege of Tonningen.

He held the English alliance throughout the war of the Spanish succession, and in 1707-9 commanded the imperial forces against the French, but he did not approve of the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, standing out with the emperor until the peace at Rastadt in 1714.

Immediately on the demise of the queen, August, 1714, the Privy Council met, and the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, and the Hanoverian minister produced three instruments, in which the elector had nominated eighteen peers to be added as lords justices to the seven great officers of state. They immediately ordered the elector to be proclaimed king in England, Scotland, and Ireland. The regency nominated the Earl of Dorset to carry to Hanover the intimation of his majesty's accession, and attend him on his journey to England, a fleet having previously been despatched to the Hague.

King George, having vested the government of his Hanoverian dominions in a council, headed by his brother Ernest, set out for the Hague, where he arrived on August 31st. On September 16th he embarked at Orange Polder, under convoy of an English and Dutch squadron, and on the 18th arrived at Greenwich, accompanied by his son, Prince George Augustus.

There he was received by the Duke of Northumberland, Captain of the Life Guards, and the Lords of the Regency.

That the new king should have been received with acclamations when he set his foot on English soil was a matter of course, but his personal appearance and demeanor were not calculated to excite any very great enthusiasm. He was fifty-four years of age, below the middle height, was shy and awkward, and could not speak the English language.

His public virtues were probably little known to his new subjects. Possessing despotic power, he had governed his Hanoverians wisely and beneficently, and his people shed tears of grief when he left them.

He soon sent for those of the nobility who had distinguished themselves by their zeal for his succession, but the Duke of Ormond, the Lord Chancellor, and Lord Trevor were not of the number.

Next morning, Harley, who had been created Earl of Oxford by Queen Anne, presented himself with an air of confidence, as if he expected to receive some particular mark of his majesty's favor; but he had the mortification of remaining almost unnoticed. On the other hand, his majesty expressed uncommon regard for the Duke of Marlborough, as well as for all the leaders of the Whig party.

The title of King George was recognized by France and all the other European Powers, both Protestant and Catholic.

The pretender, the Chevalier St. George, had issued from Lorraine, on August 29th, a manifesto, in which he asserted his right to the throne. He had been inactive, he said, "until the death of the princess, our sister, of whose good intention toward us we could not for some time doubt, and this was the reason we then sat still, expecting the good effects thereof, which were unfortunately prevented by her deplorable death." Bolingbroke, the chief encourager of those good intentions, was removed from his office as Secretary of State, and Lord Townshend appointed in his place, and the other great offices were filled by leading Whigs. Marlborough was appointed to his former office of Captain-General of the Army and Master of the Ordnance.

George had been accustomed to govern a small country through ministers to whom his will was law, and he now could not understand the complications which made the King of England, in many respects, the possessor of a nominal power, whilst the royal power was with those he called his servants.

The coronation of the king took place on October 20, 1714, the peers of both parties attending the ceremony, and the Electoral Prince was created Prince of Wales.

A new parliament was called by a singular proclamation, in which the king complained of the evil designs of men disaffected to his succession, and he hoped his loving subjects would send up to Parliament the fittest persons to redress the present disorders, particularly those who professed attachment to the Protestant succession.

The new parliament met at Westminster on March 17, 1715. On the 21st the king appeared in the House of Lords, and delivered to the Chancellor a written speech, which was read in presence of both houses. His majesty thanked his subjects for the firmness they had shown in defence of the Protestant succession against all open and secret practices which had been used to defeat it. He observed that the pretender boasted of the assistance he expected in England; that the national debt was surprisingly increasing; that the branches of the revenue formerly granted for the support of the government was encumbered; that the produce of the funds which remained would fall short of what was intended for maintaining the honor and dignity of the crown. He declared that the established constitution in church and state should be the rule of his government, and that the happiness, ease, and prosperity of his people should be the chief care of his life.

After some opposition in both houses, addresses were voted in answer to the speech from the throne.

The death of Louis XIV., September 1, 1715, was a great blow to the pretender, who was meditating an invasion of England. The Duke of Orleans, who now became Regent during the minority of Louis XV., had different views from Louis. He could not, indeed, altogether reject the claims of a kinsman, but he was unwilling to compromise the peace with England,

and would only promise secret assistance. Meanwhile, the Earl of Mar began prematurely and unadvisedly an insurrection in Scotland. He despatched letters to the principal gentry, inviting them to meet him at a great hunt in Aberdeenshire on August 27, 1715. When they assembled he exclaimed against the union, using other topics calculated to inflame his audience.

On September 6th, though he had no more than sixty followers, he raised the standard of the pretender. His force had swelled to five thousand men when he entered Perth on the 28th.

This insurrection created great alarm; the habeas corpus act was suspended, and several noted Jacobites were arrested in London, Edinburgh, and other places. As the number of regular troops in England was but small, the Dutch contingent of six thousand men was sent for, as stipulated by an article of the guarantee of succession.

Argyle, who had been despatched to support the king's cause in Scotland, had at his disposal only about one thousand foot and five hundred horse; yet Mar, who had no military talent, remained inactive. Serious symptoms of disaffection appeared in the northern counties, where Mr. Forster and the Earl of Derwentwater, hearing that orders had been issued to arrest them, rose in arms and proclaimed the pretender at Warkworth. Lord Kenmure did the same at Moffat, and, being soon after joined by the Earls of Nithisdale, Wintoun, and Carnwath, crossed the border and joined Forster. The united force, amounting to five hundred or six hundred horsemen, proceeded, by Mar's directions, to Kelso, where, on October 22d, they were joined by General McIntosh, with fourteen hundred foot. Edinburgh, which lay between the forces of McIntosh and Mar, might easily have been taken, but no plan of campaign had been formed, and after a senseless march along the Cheviots, McIntosh determined to proceed into Lancashire. Many of his men deserted, but he nevertheless entered Lancaster without resistance, and proceeded to Preston, where Stanhope's regiment of dragoons and a militia regiment retired on his approach. Here he received an accession of one thousand two hundred men, but badly armed and disciplined, and when

General Carpenter arrived (November 13th) with nine hundred cavalry, Forster surrendered almost without a blow.

Among the prisoners made on this occasion were Lords Derwentwater, Nithisdale, Wintoun, Kennure, with many members of old northern families.

On the very day of this disastrous affair, a battle had been fought between Argyle and Mar at Sheriffmuir, near Stirling. The former was now at the head of between three thousand and four thousand regular troops, while Mar's forces had increased to ten thousand men, but badly armed and disciplined. The battle was a singular one, the right wing of each army having defeated their opponents, but Argyle remained in possession of the field, while Mar retired to Perth, and the weather prevented any further operations.

The rebellion having been thus unadvisedly begun, the pretender felt himself called upon to act, whatever might be the issue. The Duke of Ormond landed in Devonshire with about forty officers and men, but, finding no one willing to join him, returned to St. Malo. The pretender sailed from Dunkirk about the middle of December, in a small vessel of eight guns, and landed at Peterhead on the 22d, accompanied by only six gentlemen, disguised as French naval officers.

Mar immediately proceeded to pay his respects to him, and was created a duke.

On January 6, 1716, the pretender made his public entry into Dundee on horseback, followed by a troop of three hundred gentlemen; thence he proceeded to Seone, performed several acts of state, and appointed January 23d for his coronation. But James was not the man for this critical time. In person he was tall and thin, sparing of speech, calm and composed in his behavior. Instead of encouraging his followers, he talked to them of his misfortunes. One of them said: "We saw nothing in him that looked like spirit; he never appeared with cheerfulness and vigor to animate us; our men began to despise him; some asked if he could speak."

On the advance of Argyle Perth was pronounced untenable by a council of the insurgent generals, and on January 30th, a day of evil omen for the Stuarts, orders were issued to retreat

northward. Argyle entered Perth twelve hours after the rebels had quitted it. The latter proceeded to Dundee, and thence to Montrose, where James stole away on the evening of February 4th, and, accompanied by Mar, embarked on board a small French vessel lying in the roads, while the rebel army gradually dispersed. Such was the ignominious end of this ill-concerted expedition.

James landed at Gravelines after a passage of seven days.

The dangers of rebellion led to the repeal of the triennial act, and one was passed allowing Parliament to sit for seven years, unless dissolved by the crown.

The Earl of Oxford was impeached for high treason and sent to the Tower, for the precipitate conclusion of the treaty of Utrecht, and afterward Lords Ormond and Bolingbroke were attainted for acting in concert with the French, and other crimes and misdemeanors.

By the act of settlement the descendant of the Princess Sophia of Hanover who should be called to the throne of Great Britain was restricted from going out of the kingdom without the consent of Parliament. A bill was brought in to repeal that clause of the act, and becoming law without opposition the king prepared to set forth to his German dominions, July 7, 1716. His anxiety to visit Hanover at this juncture was extremely objectionable to his responsible advisers. There was a constant suspicion, during the reign of the two first Georges, that continental alliances and wars were in the interest of Hanover rather than in that of Great Britain, and although this belief was in some instances unjust, the minister had to contend against the unpopularity which it threw upon the government. Every minister, from Walpole to Chatham, was, in his turn, obliged to yield, however unwillingly, to the uniformity and firmness of mind which governed the continental policy of these princes.

These repeated absences from England were no light interruption to the tranquil progress of English affairs. They became a positive danger, when each of these kings was known to stand upon the worst terms with his eldest son.

Speaking a foreign language, surrounded by foreign mis-

tresses and favorites, and constantly called away to his foreign states, George I. never ceased to be regarded by the English people as a foreigner.

He was imperfectly acquainted with the character of the people he had been called upon to govern, and he took no pains to understand their reasonable wishes or to conciliate their unreasonable prejudices.

The government of the kingdom naturally fell into the hands of the ministers who represented the stronger party, and it was fortunate that eventually a minister obtained almost exclusive power who for many years kept the nation quiet, and allowed its growing industry to become the source of great material prosperity. Louis XIV. being dead, the Regent Duke of Orleans was anxious to procure the alliance and support of England to his succession to the crown of France in the event of the death of Louis XV., a sickly boy, and he had warned the pretender to leave the territory of France. James had fallen into the hands of weak politicians and intriguing priests, and had finally settled in the Papal States.

Owing to dissensions in the cabinet the Earl of Oxford was tried by his peers and acquitted.

On November 3, 1717, the Princess of Wales was delivered of a prince, the ceremony of whose baptism was the cause of a difference between the Prince of Wales and his father. The former intended that his uncle, the Duke of York, should stand godfather. The king ordered the Duke of Newcastle to stand for himself. After the ceremony the king expressed his resentment, and ordered the prince to confine himself within his own apartments, and afterward signified his pleasure that he should quit the palace of St. James. He retired with the princess to a house belonging to the Earl of Grantham, but the children were detained at the palace.

All peers and peeresses, and all privy councillors and their wives were given to understand that in case they visited the prince or princess they should have no access to his majesty's presence.

From this time may be dated the manifestation of that national calamity which the country had to endure during three

successive reigns—the hateful exhibition of a party, in opposition to the government of the actual sovereign, gathering round the heir apparent. When King George set out for Hanover in summer he was extremely jealous of entrusting, during his absence, any special power or authority to the Prince of Wales, and the king wished to join others in commission with him. Lord Townshend opposed this. The king so far yielded as to appoint the prince guardian of the realm and lieutenant, but he withheld the title of regent from him, and imposed several restrictions upon his administrative power. The popularity which the prince acquired during the king's absence was looked upon with fear and suspicion at Hanover. He was affable, appeared fond of English habits and customs, spoke the language tolerably well, and went among the people in a free and unreserved manner, but he was not discreet in a position where discretion was essential.

The king opened a session of Parliament on February 20, 1717. He announced that a triple alliance had been signed between Great Britain and Holland with France, against Sweden and Russia. He also notified the House that he had directed papers to be laid before them which contained an account of a projected invasion by the King of Sweden, and an insurrection in England which implicated the Swedish ambassador, and that he had been arrested, and the evidence of the plot found among his papers.

On April 3d Stanhope, Secretary of State, asked for an additional supply “not only to secure his majesty's kingdoms against the present dangers with which they are threatened from Sweden, but likewise to prevent, as far as possible, the like fears for the future.” In the debate strong objections were made to the motion, and the supply was only carried by a majority of four.

Jealousy of the Sunderland party now led to a schism in the Cabinet, and Walpole and others resigned. Stanhope now became head of the government. Sunderland and Addison were appointed Secretaries of State and James Craggs Secretary of War.

England was drawn into a short war during the summer of

1718 between the emperor and Spain, when Admiral Byng annihilated the Spanish fleet, off Cape Passaro, August 11th.

Parliament was opened November 11, 1718. The king announced that he had concluded terms and conditions of peace and alliance between the greatest princes of Europe, but that Spain having rejected all our amicable proposals, it became necessary for our naval forces to check their progress.

Stanhope took a liberal view of the religious differences which had so long agitated the nation, and he desired to repeal the act against occasional conformity, the schism act, and the test act, and to mitigate the penal laws against Roman Catholics. A bill was passed for the relief of Protestant dissenters, but the test act and the penal laws were not repealed, being defeated on a division.

The two parliamentary sessions of 1719 were void of interest, and only remarkable for ministerial attempts to carry a measure which would have produced a vital change in the composition of the House of Lords. It was proposed to limit the royal power of making peers, and that the English peers should not be increased beyond six of the present number, with the exception of princes of the blood. The motion was carried by a large majority in the House of Lords, but lost in the Commons.

Walpole, in a speech of great force against the measure, said, "If this bill is passed into law, one of the most powerful incentives to virtue would be taken away, since there would be no arriving at honor but through the winding-sheet of an old decrepid lord, or the grave of an extinct noble family."

The great event of the year 1720 was the financial enterprise which culminated in the South Sea Company and the legion of other projects, and it was calculated that the value of the stock of all the companies started within a year amounted at the current prices to £500,000,000 sterling, and a royal proclamation was issued against mischievous and dangerous undertakings.

The stock of the South Sea Company rose from £100 a share to £1,000, and the Directors promised to pay fifty per cent. interest after Christmas for their yearly dividend.

But the jealousy of the company, in attempting to lessen the

number of their competitors in public favor, was the prelude to their own fall. At their instance writs were issued, on August 18th, against four companies, and the officers of these, and others not legalized, were ordered to be prosecuted by the officers of the crown. In a day or two the stocks of all companies rapidly fell, and a panic ensued.

The £1,000 stock of the South Sea Company on August 15th was offered at £850 on the 18th, and at £450 thirty days after, and in ten days more fell to £150. The great bubble burst, and thousands were ruined.

The ministry were held responsible for this great fraud, and it was even expected the king would abdicate. Lord Stanhope, replying to an attack in the House of Lords, was seized with a fit, and died the following day, February 5, 1721.

Craggs, Secretary of War, died of small-pox, and Lord Sunderland left the Treasury.

Walpole came to the front again, supported by a House of Commons strongly Whig, and the entire session of the House was occupied with investigating affairs connected with the financial convulsion.

The departure of the king in the summer of 1722 upon his usual visit to his German dominions, was to be the signal for an invasion of England by the Pretender and his faithful Ormond; disbanded troops of various countries were being collected together for this enterprise. The managers of the plot had the folly to apply to the Regent of France for the aid of five thousand men, and the regent, having more respect for treaties than Louis XIV., informed the British ambassador at Paris of the application. The vigilant Walpole was soon acquainted with the plan of action and the names of the actors. The king was advised not to go to Hanover; a camp was formed in Hyde Park, and several of the conspirators were apprehended.

The new parliament met on October 11, 1722, and the king in his speech announced the discovery of the plot and the arrest of some of the conspirators, on which the habeas corpus act was suspended for a year, and the House of Peers was asked for their consent to sanction the detention in the Tower

of the Bishop of Rochester, Lords North and Grey, and the Earl of Orrery, concerned in the conspiracy—and they were afterward attainted.

A declaration, signed James Rex, had been issued on September 22, 1722, in which James III., King of England, Scotland, and Ireland, proposed that George should quietly deliver to him the throne of those kingdoms; when he, King James, would bestow upon George the title of king in his own dominions, and invite all other states to confirm it, and the British crown should be confirmed to him if he ever should attain it in the due course of legitimate succession. This wonderful production was ordered by Parliament to be burnt by the common hangman.

A patent was granted to William Wood, a proprietor and renter of copper mines in England, in the year 1723, enabling him to coin farthings and half-pennies for Ireland. This lucrative privilege was secured through the Duchess of Kendal, the king's mistress, and through the writings of Dean Swift the patent was withdrawn.

In 1724, the "regium donum," the grant to Presbyterians and other dissenters was increased, and the king founded professorships of modern history at Oxford and Cambridge.

Parliament met on November 12, 1724. Its principal business was the supplying of funds for the expenses of the ensuing year. But while in session, articles of impeachment were brought against the Lord Chancellor, the Earl of Macclesfield, for malfeasance in office, for conniving at the frauds of the Masters in Chancery in trafficking with the trust money of the suitors, and the estates of widows and orphans. He was impeached, found guilty, excluded forever from office, and fined £30,000.

The foreign policy of George I. was decidedly pacific under the able administration of Walpole, and the nation was prospering under the relief which peace had brought to it. The fear of the Pretender and of the Spanish or Swedish invasion had passed away, and the House of Brunswick, after ten years of struggle, was firmly fixed on its constitutional throne. The Treaty of Hanover was made September 3, 1725, in an engage-

ment between England, France, and Prussia, to hold by each other if either were attacked.

The tables were turned since the war of the succession; the old foes were fast friends, and the old friends bitter foes.

When the English Parliament met on January 20, 1726, the king announced the conclusion of his defensive treaties with the Kings of France and Prussia, to which other of the powers had been invited to accede, and the treaty was ratified by a large majority.

On May 15, 1727, King George closed the session of Parliament, preparatory to his departure for Hanover. He alluded to the attack on Gibraltar by the Spaniards. He had suspended, he said, his resentments under such provocation, and; instead of having immediate recourse to arms, and demanding that assistance of his allies which they had engaged and were ready to give, he had concurred with France and the States General in making overtures of accommodation. Sweden had acceded to the treaty of Hanover, and a convention had been signed by Denmark; the overtures of accommodation thus mentioned had been successful. The Austrian ambassador signed, on May 31st, preliminaries of peace with England, France, and Holland. Spain remained alone, neither prepared for war nor conceding to the conditions of peace.

At this juncture the power of Walpole seemed to be somewhat endangered. Bolingbroke, who had been allowed, by the influence of Walpole, to return to England, was about to embark at Calais at the close of his exile (when Atterbury, late Bishop of Rochester, landed there a banished man). He had been restored to his estates by act of Parliament in 1725, and was intriguing to reach once more the possession of power under George which he had obtained under Queen Anne.

He had secured, by bribes and promises, the favor of the Duchess of Kendal, the mistress, or, according to some, the morganatic wife of the king. The duchess presented to her royal admirer a petition from Bolingbroke, in which he denounced Walpole as the author of every public evil. The king put this paper into the hands of Walpole, with his usual straightforward mode of action. The ambitious statesman therein re-

quested an interview with his sovereign, who was indisposed to grant a meeting. Walpole earnestly pressed it with his never-failing sagacity, for, as he himself said, "if this was not done, the clamor would be that I kept his majesty to myself, and would allow none to come near him to tell him the truth." George told Walpole that Bolingbroke's complaints were "bagatelles."

The king departed for Hanover on June 3d, accompanied by the Duchess of Kendal and Lord Townshend. The unhappy wife of the king had died on November 13, 1726, after many schemes of escape, all of which were frustrated.

The king landed, on June 7th, at Vaeret, Holland; on the 8th he proceeded on his journey; on the 9th he slept at Delden, on the Dutch frontier, and was again in his coach at four o'clock on the morning of the 10th, when a letter was thrown into his carriage, and on reading it he fell into a fit, from the effects of which he died. The letter was said to have been written by his wife just before her death, summoning him to meet her before the eternal tribunal to answer for his treatment of her.

George died at midnight of June 10, 1727, in the sixty-seventh year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign. By his wife, Sophia Dorothea of Zell, he left one son, George Augustus, who succeeded him, and a daughter, Sophia Dorothea, who was married in 1706 to Frederick William I., King of Prussia.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—France: Louis XIV., Louis XV.; Emperor of the West: Charles VI.; Spain: Philip V.; Prussia: Frederick William II.; Russia: Peter I., Catherine.

George II.—A.D. 1727-1760.

Born at Hanover, October 30, 1683.

Crowned, October 11, 1727.

Married Wilhelmina, daughter of the Margrave Anspach. Issue :

Frederick, who married Augusta, daughter of Frederick, Duke of Saxe-Gotha.

Issue :

George William, who ascended the throne as George III.

Edward Augustus.

William Henry.

Henry Frederick.

Augusta.

Caroline.

William Augustus, Duke of Cumberland.

Ann.

Aurelia.

Elizabeth.

Mary.

Louisa.

Died, October 25, 1760.

GEORGE AUGUSTUS, son of George I. and his wife Sophia Dorothea, Princess of Zell, was born in Hanover, October 30, 1683. Little is known of his early history, except that he was neglected by his father, and was brought up by his grandmother. He visited Holland in 1699, and in 1705 married the Princess Wilhelmina Dorothea Caroline, daughter of the Margrave of Brandenburg-Anspach, a woman of marked character and superior talent. The following year he was made a Peer of England, his title being Duke of Cambridge, with precedence over the peerage.

He made the campaign of 1708, under the Duke of Marlborough, and conducted himself with great bravery at the battle of Oudenarde, having his horse shot under him. In the opposite ranks, and showing equal valor, was the Pretender, the son of James II.

He accompanied his father to England when he ascended the throne, in 1714, and was created Prince of Wales. The quarrels between father and son broke out soon after, and they hated each other cordially. The prince was preferred by his grandmother, the Electress Sophia, to her own son, and he was at-

tached to his mother's cause—two reasons that made his father dislike him. The king also disliked the Princess of Wales, and was jealous of her popularity.

So vindictive was his feeling, that he at one time entertained a proposition made by the Earl of Berkeley, to carry off the prince to America, there to be so disposed of as never to trouble his father again.

When the prince left the Palace of St. James at the close of 1717, the king tried to deprive him of all control over his children, and the matter being referred to the judges, ten of the twelve decided in his favor. A sort of reconciliation was effected, in 1720, through Walpole's influence.

On June 14, 1727, an express arrived from Lord Townshend who accompanied George I. to Hanover as Secretary of State. Walpole, First Lord of the Treasury, was instantly in his saddle on the road to Richmond where the Prince of Wales was staying.

The prince looked upon his father's chief adviser with suspicion and resentment.

"I am come to acquaint your majesty with the death of your father," was Walpole's hasty communication. He then asked certain questions about the king's pleasure as to the Council being summoned, and as to other necessary formalities.

"Go to Chiswick and take your directions from Sir Spencer Compton," was the uncourteous reply.

Sir Spencer Compton was treasurer to the Prince of Wales, Speaker of the House of Commons and Paymaster-in-chief of the army—"A plodding, heavy fellow, with great application, but no talents," says Lord Hervey.

Walpole told Compton it was clear that the king meant him for his minister. He professed that he had no desire for power for himself—a small office in the household would be sufficient to show he was not disgraced. The minister expectant who was "always more concerned for the manner and form in which a thing was to be done, than about the propriety or expediency of the thing itself," was charmed with the moderation of the man who had been the ruler of England.

He asked Walpole to make for him a draft of a speech to be

delivered by the king to the Council, while he went to the king at Richmond.

When he returned the speech was ready, Sir Spencer made a copy of it, and returned to Richmond.

One passage in the speech was objected to by the king, and Compton, not seeing his way to alter it, requested Walpole to see his Majesty and implore him to leave it as originally drawn.

Queen Caroline, who was a firm friend of Walpole's, and a better judge than her husband of the capacities of the two men, watched for the proper moment to apprise the king how prejudicial it would be to his affairs not to prefer a man in whose own judgment his predecessor saw the fittest person to execute the office. Consequently, the old ministers remained in office. In the meantime a Privy Council was called to meet at Leicester House, the king's residence, and was sworn anew.

The king declared his firm purpose to preserve the constitution in church and state, and to cultivate those alliances which his father had made with foreign princes. At the same time he took and subscribed the oath for the security of the Church of Scotland, as required by the act of union. Next day he was proclaimed King of Great Britain.

Parliament assembled in pursuance to an act for that purpose, but the king made no decided movement toward a new ministry. The courtiers flocked around Sir Spencer; they got out of the way of Walpole. The civil list was to be settled by Parliament in a fortnight. The court moved to Kensington Palace, where the king, by the audiences that were asked, and the offers that were made to him by the great men of all denominations, found himself, as he said, set up at auction, and every one bidding for his favor at the expense of the public.

Walpole outbid his rivals; he proposed in Parliament that the entire revenue of the civil list should be settled on the king, being an increase of about £130,000, and that Queen Caroline should receive a jointure of £100,000. Not a voice was raised against the proposal but that of Shippan. Walpole and his party remained in power; Compton was compensated with the presidency of the council and a peerage. Walpole's power was attributed to the influence Queen Caroline possessed over her

husband. His opponents thought that the king's favorite mistress, Mrs. Howard, would be the dispenser of court favors, but Walpole's sagacity discovered that the power would be lodged in the wife, and he not only devoted himself to the queen, but totally abstained from even visiting Mrs. Howard.

The time was not yet ripe for agitating the question of a distinct provision for the eldest son of the king, independent of any allowance the crown might bestow upon him.

Prince Frederick was twenty years of age, was not a resident of England, and had not yet been created Prince of Wales, and, unfortunately, both the father and mother entertained a deep-rooted dislike toward him.

He arrived in England in December, 1728; was styled the Duke of Edinburgh, but was soon after created Prince of Wales.

In Queen Caroline the king for ten years of his reign had such an adviser and friend as few sovereigns have ever been blessed with. She possessed the rare wisdom of governing her husband without appearing to govern. She never offered an opinion when any matter of state was discussed between the king and his ministers in her presence, but her opinion was ever certain to prevail. The queen and Walpole perfectly understood the system under which the succession of the house of Brunswick became less and less assailable.

Expediency was their great principle—Let well enough alone; keep the nation as much as possible at peace with its neighbors; abstain from asserting any prerogative that might appear to interfere with parliamentary government; secure a majority in Parliament, even at the cost of pandering to the fawning and time-serving; surrender even what you know to be right if the danger of popular clamor against a measure be greater than the good which it proposes to accomplish. These are not noble maxims of government, but they had beneficial results upon a nation that had been disturbed by so many conflicting principles for nearly a century.

The foreign policy of England had ceased to be troubled with the dangers of insurrection or invasion for restoring the Stuart family.

The British and French governments were now in entire accord. Spain, although still grumbling about Gibraltar, had consented to a peace. All unsettled questions with the emperor and others were to be referred to a congress at Soissons.

The coronation of King George took place at Westminster, October 11, 1727.

The history of the first fourteen years of George's reign is that of the struggle of Walpole and the opposition—the fiercest political contest unstained by blood that England has ever known. It commenced in 1730 by the quarrel of Lord Townshend and Sir Robert Walpole, and on the resignation of the former, Walpole became supreme in the administration.

Parliament met on January 23, 1728, with an overwhelming majority for the ministry.

The king in his speech from the throne stated that the difficulties which had retarded the opening of the peace congress, he hoped, would soon be removed; in the meantime he represented the absolute necessity of continuing the preparations which had hitherto secured the nation and prevented a general rupture in Europe. He promised that his first care should be to reduce, from time to time, the expenses of the public service, as often and as soon as the interest and safety of his people would permit. And he recommended unanimity, zeal, and despatch of the public business.

Both Houses, in the debate upon the speech, appeared to vie with each other in expressions of affection to his Majesty. The Commons approved of all his transactions, and promised to support him in all his undertakings, and declared they would cheerfully grant whatever supplies should be wanted for the public service. They then voted an army of twenty-three thousand men, besides twelve thousand Hessians, and fifteen thousand seamen, and a revenue of £4,000,000, to be raised by certain stipulated taxes.

A committee of Parliament investigated the condition of certain persons who were prevented holding office under former acts against dissenters, and secured some important reforms.

The treaty of Seville was concluded between England, France, Spain, and Holland, which was very advantageous to

England, and by which Spain silently acquiesced in the English possession of Gibraltar.

In the year 1731 the use of Latin in the courts of law was discontinued, and English substituted.

The abuses practised on prisoners in the jails of the kingdom were brought to light by the philanthropist Oglethorpe, and redressed.

Parliament met on January 21, 1731. The king, in his speech, after communicating the nature of the negotiations at the congress, demanded such supplies as might enable him to act vigorously in concert with his allies, provided his endeavors to establish an advantageous peace should miscarry. The grants of the former year were renewed.

The mere report of an intention to introduce a system of general excise caused great alarm, and the opposition that had been reduced very low in the House, immediately became vigorous. The battle was fought with ability and courage on both sides, and though in some of its stages the ministerial majorities were sixty, they finally fell to sixteen in a House of Commons that had given Walpole two hundred majority on other questions.

The bill was withdrawn, greatly to the satisfaction of the people. The king was as much beaten as the minister, and they revenged themselves by dismissing from office or from sinecure places a number of distinguished noblemen who had been prominent in opposing the measure, one of whom was Lord Chesterfield.

The last session of the Parliament chosen in 1727 was opened by the king on January 17, 1734.

A new quarrel had now broken out in Europe upon the death of Augustus II., King of Poland, and Walpole had put into the king's mouth, through the speech from the throne, the following :

“The war, which is now begun and carried on against the emperor with so much vigor by the united powers of France, Spain, and Sardinia, is becoming the object and the care of all Europe. And though I am now ways engaged in it, and have had no part except by my good offices in those transactions

which have been declared to be the principal causes and motives of it, I cannot sit regardless of the present events, or be unconcerned for the future consequences of a war undertaken and supported by so powerful an alliance. The resolutions of the British Parliament in so particular a juncture are of too great moment not to be carefully attended to, and impatiently expected by all, and not the least by those who will hope to take advantage from your determinations, whatever they will be, and to turn them to the prejudice of this kingdom.

“It must therefore be thought most safe and prudent thoroughly to weigh and consider all circumstances before we come to a final determination.

“As I shall have, in all my considerations upon this great and important affair, the strictest regard to the honor of my crown and to the good of my people, and be governed by no other views, I can make no doubt but that I may entirely depend on the support and assistance of my Parliament without exposing myself, by any precipitate declarations, to such inconveniences as ought, as far as possible, to be avoided. In the meantime I am persuaded you will make such provisions as shall secure my kingdom's rights and possessions from all dangers and insults, and maintain the respect due to the British nation.

“Whatever part it may, in the end, be most reasonable for us to act, it will, in all views, be necessary, when all Europe is preparing for arms, to put ourselves in a proper posture of defence.”

The great merit of Sir Robert Walpole in resolutely maintaining the policy of neutrality may be better appreciated from the circumstance that the king and queen were opposed to pacific views.

George used daily to tell his minister “that it was with the sword alone he desired to keep the balance of Europe; he could not bear the thought of growing old in peace and rusting in the cabinet, whilst other princes were busied in war and shining in the field.” The queen, with all her good sense, was as unmanageable as the king wherever the interest of Germany and the honor of the empire were concerned. Her thoughts and reasonings were as often German and imperial as if England had been out of the question. The perseverance of Walpole had its re-

ward. He was disliked at Vienna, but before the end of the summer of 1734 George said to his minister: "I have followed your advice, Walpole, in keeping quiet, contrary often to my own opinion, and sometimes I have thought contrary even to my honor, but I am convinced you advised me well."

Walpole continued firm in maintaining the neutrality of England in conjunction with the States General. The emperor sent an emissary to London to intrigue with some members of the opposition against the Prime Minister; Sir Robert detected them, and they were obliged to depart the kingdom. Under the mediation of England and Holland peace was concluded in 1735.

The session of Parliament was closed after great wrangling between both parties on domestic affairs, April 16th, and on the 18th it was dissolved, having run its course of seven years.

A warm contest now took place throughout the land in electing representatives for a new parliament, but the ministerial party predominated.

Both houses assembled at Westminster on January 14, 1735. Onslow, the Speaker of the last House, was re-elected, and the leaders of both parties were the same as in the previous parliament.

The king, in his opening speech, after repeating the alliances he had made and the accommodations he had effected, observed that whilst many of the principal powers of Europe were actually engaged in war, Great Britain must be more or less affected with the consequences, and as the best-concerted measures are liable to uncertainty, the nation ought to be prepared against all events. He, therefore, expressed his hope that his good subjects would not repine at the necessary means of procuring the blessings of peace and universal tranquillity, or of putting him in a condition to act that part which it might be necessary and incumbent upon him to take.

The House, on the motion of supply, resolved that thirty thousand seamen should be employed for the service of the ensuing year, and that the land forces should be augmented to the number of thirty thousand. These resolutions were not carried without great disputing on the part of the opposition.

Parliament was then prorogued. The king announced his intention of visiting his German dominions, and the queen was appointed regent of the kingdom. Nothing of importance occurred during the king's absence. He returned from Hanover on October 22d, and, according to Lord Hervey, in very bad temper and dissatisfied with everything English, his majesty having left a lady in Hanover, Madame Wolmoden, to whom he wrote by every post.

Soon after his return the preliminaries of a general peace were signed at Vienna. Europe would be at rest again for four years.

Parliament was opened on January 15, 1736. The king congratulated both houses on the prospect of a general peace in Europe, and told them he had already ordered a considerable reduction to be made in his forces, both by land and sea, but at the same time observed that it would be necessary to continue some extra expense until a more perfect reconciliation should be established among the several powers of Europe.

The repeal of certain clauses in the Test Act was again lost, as dangerous to the Established Church of England.

The king was empowered to raise the sum of £600,000, chargeable to the Sinking Fund, for the expenses of the current year, and to lay a duty of twenty shillings a gallon on all spirituous liquors, and that £50 a year should be paid to his majesty by all persons who should vend, barter, or sell said liquors.

A bill was also passed, after great opposition, for the relief of the people called Quakers.

After a residence of some years in England, Frederick, Prince of Wales, who had become acquainted with the language and manners of the country, began to cabal against his parents, as George II. had caballed against his father, George I.

Though stubborn, he was weak and vain, and easily led by flatterers. He affected to patronize literature, probably because his father despised and neglected it, and his residence was frequented by all the men of wit and genius, especially by Bolingbroke whose "Patriot King" was composed in anticipation of his future reign and as a satire on that of his father.

He had been disappointed in a Prussian marriage in 1735,

and being impatient to marry, he had been told that a bride would be found for him in the person of the Princess Augusta of Saxe-Gotha. The lady arrived in England on April 25, 1736, and they were married two days afterward. She was only seventeen years of age, could not speak English and little French, but she had good sense, and in the difficult circumstances of her after-life had to exercise great prudence and sagacity.

The king allowed the prince an income of £50,000 a year. His private counsellors, opponents of the government, advised his applying to Parliament for double that amount; but the measure was lost, and caused the quarrel between father and son to become more bitter than ever. The king wanted to turn him and his household out of St. James's, but Walpole persuaded his majesty from that step. The prince was a favorite with the people, and the dislike of the king and queen to him made him more popular with a large number.

The king, during the whole summer and autumn of 1737, had remained in Germany. The queen was little seen, as she lived a retired life in Kensington. People of all ranks were indignant at the king's long stay abroad; the national ill-humor was displayed in pasquinades.

On the gate of St. James's Palace this notice was posted: "Lost or strayed out of this house, a man who has left a wife and six children on the parish; whoever will give any tidings of him to the churchwardens of this parish, so as he may be got again, shall receive four shillings and sixpence reward. N. B.—This reward will not be increased, nobody judging him to deserve a crown" (five shillings).

The king being indisposed in consequence of a boisterous passage from Holland, the Parliament was prorogued from January 21st to February 1st, 1737, and then the session was opened by commission. The Lord Chancellor, reading the speech from the throne, said: "With regard to foreign affairs, the great work of re-establishing the general tranquillity was far advanced. His majesty could not, without surprise and concern, observe the many attempts, carried on in various shapes and in different parts of the nation, to resist and obstruct the

execution of the laws, and to violate the peace of the kingdom. This required particular attention."

The house then went into the business of supply for the coming year, and voted ten thousand men for the navy, and continued for the land service the number they had maintained in times of tranquillity, numbering eighteen thousand men.

The revenue was raised by a land and malt tax, and reimbursed by £1,000,000 granted out of the Sinking Fund. Very little other business was transacted this session.

The Princess of Wales was safely delivered of a daughter at St. James's Palace on July 31, 1737. The people rejoiced in the birth of a princess, for they said if she ever came to the throne it would be what they all desired, the disjoining the Electorate of Hanover from the crown of England, the former being in the male line only.

Queen Caroline died on November 20, 1737, recommending her husband and children to Walpole with her last breath.

In this year the privilege of the Lord Chamberlain to interfere with theatrical representations was made a legal power, and copies of all new plays had to be submitted to him for his approval and license.

On June 4, 1738, the Princess of Wales was delivered of a son, who was christened George Augustus, and who afterward ascended the throne as George III. The birth of a grandson of George II. was an occasion of national rejoicing; it probably increased the king's jealousy of his son. A notice from the Lord Chamberlain was published in the *London Gazette* that no visitor of the prince should be admitted to the court of St. James's. The opposition gathered more and more around the prince, and William Pitt became one of the gentlemen of his bedchamber.

The opposition endeavored to have the army reduced, but failed. They then assailed the ministry because of its indifference to the outrages perpetrated by the Spaniards in America, and on Englishmen there trading. The arrangement made with Spain was unpopular, and Pitt's favor may be dated from his speech against it.

The ministerial majority was greatly reduced in Parliament,

but Walpole was saved by the folly of his enemies, a number of whom seceded. The troubles with Spain continued, and war was declared against that country October 19, 1739. The war was by no means brilliantly conducted. The English failed at Cartagena, in South America, and also at Santiago de Cuba, but Anson's cruise in the Pacific and Indian Seas was successful, and revived the recollections of the Elizabethan age. Vernon took Portobello.

The war of the Austrian succession began soon after, and England was drawn into it.

Parliament was approaching its natural termination under the septennial act, and the ministerial strength was daily diminishing. The king had gone to Hanover, and, without the knowledge of his ministers, had entered into a treaty of neutrality for his German states for one year, and Walpole had to bear the blame of every event that appeared pregnant with danger.

New elections were held, and on December 4, 1741, the new parliament met, Mr. Onslow being again chosen speaker. The king, in his speech, owned that his endeavors for peace had not hitherto produced the desired effect, though he was not without hope. He represented the necessity of putting the kingdom in such a posture of defence as would enable him to approve all opportunities of maintaining the liberties of Europe and defeat any attempts that should be made against him and his dominions. He recommended unanimity, vigor, and despatch.

The struggle between the ministerial party and the opposition immediately commenced, and night after night the ministerial majority dwindled away. After a great debate on January 18, 1742, Walpole had only a majority of three in the fullest house ever known. On January 28th, after another battle, he had only a majority of one, and on February 1st he resigned the management of the government, much to the grief of the king, who continued to take his advice to the last days of his life.

Sir Robert Walpole was soon after created Earl of Orford, and on March 9th a motion was made in the House for a secret committee to inquire into the administration of Sir Robert Wal-

pole during the past ten years, for wholesale corruption and misappropriation of the public money; but it was not substantiated by the testimony before the committee, and no case was made.

Lord Wilmington now became Premier, and Carteret Secretary of State. Success was ruinous to the opposition, which showed it could not administer affairs, though so eloquent in fault-finding. The public were greatly disappointed, and the refusal of the victors to repeal the septennial act, which had been the object of their special indignation when out of office, caused much dissatisfaction.

England had now become actively engaged in the Austrian war, supporting the settlement called the Pragmatic Sanction, by which the Austrian succession devolved upon the late emperor's eldest daughter, Maria Theresa of Hungary, while France and Spain maintained the claims of Charles Albert, Elector of Bavaria.

As long as England remained at peace there was little to be apprehended from the Pretender. The two young men who were called Prince of Wales and Duke of York lived retired lives in Rome, but were treated by the papal court with royal dignity. They were imperfectly educated, and knew little of the history or real condition of the country they were taught to consider as their inheritance, and from which the usurper some day must be driven. In 1743 an invasion of England was projected from France, and Charles Edward, the Pretender, was urged to leave Rome and repair to Paris. He was nominally to command an army of veterans assembled at Dunkirk, having the great Marshal Saxe to lead the troops, which were to drive the Elector of Hanover from his usurped throne. The expedition sailed early in the year 1744 from Dunkirk. A great storm destroyed or scattered the fleet of transports, and Admiral Sir John Norris, who was ready for a fight in the channel, was content to pick up a few disabled vessels, and once more Charles Edward had to seclude himself till a more favorable occasion should arise.

Immediately after Parliament prorogued the king left for Germany. An English army had been previously sent to Flan-

ders, and a large German force was taken into English pay, which added to the hatred against Hanover already felt in England.

The king joined the allied armies at the head of forty thousand men and fought the battle of Dettingen, where he displayed great courage, together with his second son, the Duke of Cumberland. The battle continued nearly the whole day. They fought desperately, and in the end the victory was complete on the part of the allies.

On March 20, 1744, France declared war against England. There was now an end of that anomalous state of things, in which two great states were fighting against each other, not as principals, but as auxiliaries of the other governments.

The death of Lord Wilmington led to Henry Pelham's elevation to the premiership. The king acting under the advice of Walpole, Carteret continued to manage foreign affairs, and was much liked by the king. The Hanoverian policy was still vigorously opposed, but the resolute conduct of France, the fear of invasion, and the revival of the Jacobite party, caused some remission of party feeling, and the adoption of strong measures by government; the Whigs of all views united in their support.

In 1745 the campaign in Flanders opened, and was long memorable for the display of valor of the British soldier. The French army, under Marshal Saxe, numbering seventy-six thousand men, had taken the field.

To oppose him was the young Duke of Cumberland, under the tutelage of an old Austrian marshal. The united army did not reach fifty thousand men. In the early part of May the French invested Tournay, and the Duke of Cumberland advanced with his army to meet them. On the 10th he had driven in the French outposts, and he issued orders for a general attack. On the morning of the 11th the allies advanced, and in five hours the engagement had become general. The fighting on both sides was desperate, but no victory was gained, yet the battle was long remembered by the nation as something which added to its military fame—not a victory, but “a soldier's battle,” which had its own glory.

The loss of the British was four thousand men killed, the

Hanoverians nearly two thousand, and the French acknowledged a loss of seven thousand, which was said to be underrated.

On July 25, 1745, Charles Edward, the Pretender, Prince of Wales, landed on the west coast of Scotland with the Marquis of Tullibardine, who was attainted in 1715, and a few followers. They were soon joined by a large number of Highlanders of every rank. On August 19th the prince attended a gathering of the clans at Glenfinnan, where two thousand Highlanders were soon assembled.

Tullibardine then read a declaration in the name of James VIII., dated Rome, 1743, and the commission to his eldest son as regent. This declaration treated the whole contest for the throne of England as a personal question between the Elector of Hanover and the son of James II. Officers and soldiers were called upon to desert the usurper's cause, and fight for the rightful heir to the throne. The prince then advanced on Perth, gathering strength as he went. On the 17th he entered Edinburgh, lodging at Holyrood, and then marched southward. On the 21st his army attacked and defeated General Cope, at Preston Pans, and afterward returned to Edinburgh with exulting followers but a diminished army, and after a sojourn in that city of six weeks was enabled to muster double the number of men that he had at the battle of Preston Pans, and he therefore decided on marching south, and sent agents to inform his friends of his intention.

We will now direct our attention to the state of affairs in England, the movements of the administration, the opinions of the Parliament, and the temper of the people under the extraordinary circumstances which had placed the capital of Scotland in the possession of the Jacobites, and which rendered the invasion of the south an imminent danger. The king and the army were on the continent, and some historians assert that if, after the battle of Preston Pans, Charles could have pushed on two or three thousand men, he might have reached London without much opposition, and succeeded in at least a temporary restoration, as the spirit of the people in no degree responded to the efforts of the government. They remained cold lookers

on, not altogether favoring the rebellion, but little disposed to fight against it.

Pelham was not so apprehensive of the strength or zeal of the enemy, as fearful of the inability and backwardness of his friends. England, Fox thought, would be for the first comer, the English and Dutch armies from Flanders, or the French and Spaniards.

Horace Walpole looked on Scotland as lost. On August 31st the king arrived in London, and Parliament was summoned to meet on October 17th. Troops were arriving from Flanders, and were sent north, to rendezvous at Newcastle. Several powerful chiefs in Scotland, attached to the government, were now exerting themselves in its defence, and the whole nation generally now threw off their apathy, and prepared to resist the invaders. In the meantime Prince Charles had raised an army of five thousand men and marched south. Carlisle was invested, and in three days surrendered to the pretender prince. The keys of the city were delivered to him at Brampton by the mayor and aldermen, on their knees. His father was proclaimed king as James III., and he as regent. Leaving a small garrison at Carlisle he advanced to Penrith, marching on foot, in the Highland garb, at the head of his forces, and continued his route through Lancaster and Preston to Manchester, where, on November 29th, he established his headquarters. The inhabitants seemed to receive him with marks of affection. His intention was to continue his march into Wales, where he hoped to find a large number of adherents, but the bridges over the Mersey had been broken down. He then took the route to Stockport, Macclesfield, Congleton, and on December 4th entered the town of Derby, in which his army was quartered, and where his father was again proclaimed with great solemnity. He was now within one hundred miles of the capital, which was filled with terror and confusion. Wade, with the royal troops, remained in Yorkshire, and the Duke of Cumberland had assumed command of another army assembled in the neighborhood of Lichfield. He had marched from Stafford to Stone, so that the rebels, in turning off from Ashbourne to Derby, had gained a march between him and London.

The young Pretender found himself miserably disappointed in his expectations. He had now advanced into the middle of the kingdom, and, except a few who had joined him at Manchester, not a soul appeared in his behalf. The Welsh took no steps to excite an insurrection in his favor; the French made no attempt at an invasion; his court was divided into factions; the Highland chiefs began to murmur, and their clans to be unruly. He saw himself, with a handful of men, hemmed in between two considerable armies, in the middle of winter, and in a country disaffected to his cause. He knew he could not proceed to the metropolis without hazarding a battle, and a defeat would be attended with destruction to himself and his followers. A council of war was called and a retreat decided on, which was commenced on December 6th. They took the route by which they came, and on the 19th reached Carlisle. The army was greatly harassed on the road, but ultimately arrived, after great hardships and heavy loss, into Scotland, and on December 24th reached Glasgow. After remaining a week in that city they marched to Stirling, where he was joined by Lord Strathallan and a numerous force. His army now numbered nine thousand men.

On January 17, 1746, was fought the battle of Falkirk, the royalists being commanded by General Hawley. Both armies believed themselves defeated, and at one time were running off the field in different directions; but on the whole the rebels claimed a victory.

The Duke of Cumberland now took command of the royalist army in Scotland, and on January 31, 1746, began his successful march which ended all the Pretender's hopes by the total defeat of the rebel army at the battle of Culloden, April 17, 1746. From that time he is hunted from place to place, sometimes lurking in caves, and rowed in fishers' boats from isle to isle, among the Hebrides; at times in woman's attire, exposed to hunger, thirst, and weariness; he was obliged to trust his life to the fidelity of over fifty persons, and many of these were of the humblest walks of life; they knew that the price of £30,000 was placed upon his head, a sum that would have made them rich for life, but not one betrayed him, all ministered to

his necessities. At length a French privateer, hired by some of his friends, appeared on the coast, and on September 20th he safely embarked, and after a dangerous passage landed on the coast of Bretagne, accompanied by Cameron of Lochiel, and a few other exiles. From this time dates the extinction of the Stuart party.

The rest of the war was inglorious, and it was terminated by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, October, 1748. The only gainer by it was the King of Prussia, who secured Silesia. The article for the mutual restitution of all conquests was very unpopular in England, and the more so that France demanded and obtained two hostages for the delivery of Cape Breton. The Earl of Sussex and Lord Cathcart were sent to Paris in that capacity.

By one of the articles of this treaty the French court undertook to expel the Pretender from France, and they offered him an establishment at Friburg in Switzerland, with a guard and title of Prince of Wales; but Charles regarding such a course as a mean compliance with orders from Hanover, obstinately refused to quit Paris. At length it became necessary to use force, he was seized and conveyed to the frontiers of Savoy, and there abandoned to his lonely wanderings.

He appears to have now visited Venice and Germany, to have resided some time secretly in Paris, and even to have paid two visits to England. After the death of his father, James, in 1766, he returned to Rome, and in his latter years fell into habits of drunkenness. In 1772, at the age of fifty-two, he married the Princess Louisa of Stolberg, a girl of twenty. They subsequently lived at Florence under the title of the Count and Countess of Albany, but the union was unhappy, he was harsh, and she was unfaithful; in 1780 she eloped with Alfieri, the dramatic poet. Charles died at Rome, January 30, 1788.

One of the results of the war was the founding of Halifax in Nova Scotia, named after the Earl of Halifax, President of the Board of Trade. To relieve the great number of discharged soldiers and sailors, they were encouraged to emigrate by a grant of fifty acres to each, a free passage, and immunity from taxes for a period of ten years.

For some years after the peace nothing of importance occurred. On March 20, 1751, Frederick, Prince of Wales, expired, an event which from his weak and fickle character did not occasion much regret; he left eight children, and his consort pregnant with another. George, his eldest son, was now created Prince of Wales; and as he was only twelve years of age, while the king was sixty-seven, it became necessary to appoint a regency in the event of a demise of the crown before the prince should attain his majority. After a considerable debate, a bill was passed, appointing his mother, the Dowager-Princess of Wales, guardian of his person, and regent of the kingdom; but subject, in the latter capacity, to the control of the council, composed of the Duke of Cumberland and the nine principal officers of state at the time of the king's death.

In this year (1751) the change in the calendar was effected by act of Parliament, providing that the year should commence on the first day of January instead of the twenty-fifth day of March, and eleven days in September, 1752, were to be nominally dropped, in order to bring the calendar into unison with the actual state of the solar year. The great body of the people regarded the reform as impious and a popish measure. Sweden followed England, in 1753, but Russia and those countries belonging to the Greek Church still follow the old style.

A bill for the naturalization of the Jews was passed in 1753, and is thought to have been one of the most creditable acts of English legislation, but it caused so much popular excitement, that it had to be repealed.

The marriage act, passed the same year, was almost as unpopular; it obliged the publication of banns in a parish church, and the ceremony to be performed there.

The Prime Minister, Mr. Pelham, died March 3, 1754; he was succeeded by the Duke of Newcastle, who found himself compelled to share power with Henry Fox, as leader in the House of Commons.

Events were now maturing which rendered it necessary and important that England should have a firm and capable government. On March 25, 1755, the king sent a message to both Houses to acquaint them, "That the present situation of affairs

makes it necessary to augment my forces by sea and land, and to take such measures as may best tend to preserve the general peace of Europe, and to secure the just rights and possessions of my crown in America."

Quarrels had long prevailed, both in the East Indies and in North America, between the French and English settlers, which threatened to produce hostilities between the mother countries, as well as perpetual disputes as to the boundaries and alleged rights out of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

A large French armament, equipped at Brest, was watched by Admiral Boscawen, who had orders to attack them in case their destination should be the Gulf of St. Lawrence; two English vessels had captured two French ones off Newfoundland.

Although no formal declaration of war had been made, General Braddock, with a body of English troops, was sent to succor the colonists in Virginia. He marched against the French fort on the Ohio River, taking Colonel Washington and some American militia with him. In a valley between two woods, within ten miles of Fort Duquesne—utterly neglecting all precautions against surprise—the English general fell into an ambuscade of Indians; a few French only encountered him, but the unerring marksmen of the woods picked off his officers, and Braddock himself was mortally wounded. Half his troops fled in confusion and abandoned their artillery; the other half were killed and wounded, and the terrible scalping-knife left few to tell the tale of their fatal reverse.

During this summer the king was in Hanover, and the regency were undecided about declaring war. Some were for immediate hostilities, some for delaying them, and the time was passing for any sudden and decisive blow. The king had left the regency to take care of the great national interests of Britain while he was looking after continental affairs, subsidizing auxiliary powers for the protection of his own Hanover.

Whilst the English and French were fighting in the wilds of America, their ships were engaged in the Atlantic, and several battles had been fought and French ships captured. And as the war had in a measure begun, his majesty at last thought proper to return to England, where he arrived on September 15, 1755.

Parliament met on November 13th. The king, in his speech, declared that all proper measures had been taken to protect our possessions in America, and to regain such parts thereof as had been encroached upon, or invaded; that to preserve his people from the calamities of war, as well as to prevent a general war from being lighted up in Europe, he had always been ready to accept reasonable and honorable terms of accommodation, but that none such had been proposed by France; that he had also confined his views and operations to hinder France from making new encroachments, or supporting those already made; to exert his people's rights to a satisfaction for hostilities committed in time of profound peace, and to disappoint such designs as, from various preparations, there was reason to think had been formed against his kingdoms; that the King of Spain earnestly wished the preservation of the public tranquillity; that he himself had greatly increased his naval armaments and augmented his land forces; and, finally, that he had concluded a treaty with the Empress of Russia, and another with the Landgrave of Hesse Cassel, which should be laid before them.

The address from the Commons said, "We think ourselves bound in justice and gratitude to assist his majesty against insults and attacks that may be made against any of his majesty's dominions, though not belonging to the crown of Great Britain." They then proceeded to provide for the service of the ensuing year: fifty thousand seaman were voted for the navy; thirty-five thousand soldiers for the army, and £2,600,000 for their maintenance. £100,000 was voted as a subsidy to the Empress of Russia, and £55,000 to the Landgrave of Hesse.

The earthquake in Lisbon was announced to Parliament by a message from the king, asking the House to send speedy and effectual relief in so pressing an exigency.

In closing the session of Parliament, on May 27, 1756, the king announced, that owing to the injuries his subjects had sustained from the French by the invasion of Minorca, he had formally declared war against France.

The Duke of Newcastle could not be persuaded, until too late, of the designs of the French; he neglected all necessary precautions, and then he sent out in a hurry ten ships, badly

equipped, under Admiral Byng. On April 18, 1756, a French fleet of twelve ships of the line, and a large number of transports, having sixteen thousand troops on board, appeared off Minorca, and threatened Mahon. The castle of St. Philip, which commands the town and harbor, was a strong fortress, but the garrison had been reduced to three thousand men, and Lord Trelawney, the governor, as well as a great many officers, was absent. The defence of the place therefore fell upon General Blakeney, a brave officer, but old and invalided.

When Byng hove in sight off St. Philip's, on May 19th, the British flag was still flying there. On the following day, the French admiral, De la Galissonière, bore down with his whole force. Byng ranged his ships in line of battle; and Admiral West, the second in command, engaged with his division, and dispersed the ships opposed to him; but Byng kept aloof.

On the following morning the French were out of sight. Byng then called a council of war, expressed his determination to retreat, as his force was so inferior to that of the enemy, and sailing to Gibraltar, left Minorca to its fate.

Nevertheless, St. Philip's held out till June 27th, when, some of the outworks having been carried, the garrison were obliged to capitulate, but marched out with the honors of war, and, in conformity with the terms, were conveyed to Gibraltar.

At this loss the popular indignation in England was uncontrollable. The cry was loud against the ministry, but louder still against Byng. Either treachery or cowardice was universally imputed to him, and he was burnt in effigy in all the principal towns of the kingdom.

The Duke of Newcastle was willing to make Byng the scape-goat. Admiral Sir Edward Hawke was sent out to supersede him, and to send home both him and West as prisoners. West was immediately liberated, but a court martial was held on Byng in the following December, at Portsmouth, by which he was acquitted of cowardice or treachery, but condemned, by the 12th Article of War, of not having done all in his power to relieve St. Philip's, and defeat the French fleet. At the same time he was recommended to mercy. But the popular clamor was too great to allow this recommendation to prevail. He was

shot on the quarter-deck of H. M. S. *Monarque*, March 14, 1757, and met his fate with courage.

On June 4, 1756, George, Prince of Wales, completed his eighteenth year. The king wished to give the prince a separate establishment, with an allowance of £40,000 a year, and remove him from the control of his mother, the Princess Dowager. The prince earnestly entreated the king not to separate him from his mother, although he was deeply grateful for the proposed royal bounty.

Owing to the unpopularity of the ministry, incurred by the national disgraces, the Duke of Newcastle and Fox were compelled to resign, and the king was now reluctantly obliged to have recourse to Pitt, who was beginning to be the great leader in the Commons. He held the seal as Secretary of State only a few months, when the Duke of Cumberland persuaded the king to dismiss him, and recall Newcastle. The latter nobleman, however, found it impossible to form a ministry without Pitt's assistance. The nation was in a ferment at his dismissal, and most of the principal towns in the kingdom sent him their freedom in gold boxes. The king, after vain attempts to form a ministry with Fox and Lord Waldegrave, was at length obliged to submit to Pitt's terms. Newcastle returned to the treasury, but without one of his own party at the board, and with Legge as Chancellor of the Exchequer, Pitt became Secretary of State, and Temple, Privy Seal. Thus was Pitt's first cabinet formed, June 29, 1757.

Frederick, King of Prussia, now drew closer his alliance with England, and the Duke of Cumberland proceeded to the continent to fight in his cause and to defend the electorate. Frederick had made an incursion into Bohemia and gained a victory near Prague, but he was in turn defeated at the heights of Kolin and obliged to retire. The French, advancing with a large army, compelled the Duke of Cumberland to retreat before them, and they overran all Hanover.

The duke took refuge under the guns of Stade, and supported by those of four British men-of-war in the Elbe; but he was manœuvred out of his position by the Duke of Richelieu, the French general, and was compelled to enter into the convention

of Kloster Seven, by which he agreed to dismiss his auxiliaries, to withdraw his troops over the Elbe and disperse them in cantonments, leaving only a garrison in Stade. Thus Hanover was lost. George II. was as indignant at this failure as Frederick himself, and received his son (Cumberland) with the greatest coldness.

Offended by this treatment Cumberland threw up all his employments and lived in comparative obscurity until 1765, when he died at the age of forty-five. Frederick seemed reduced to the last extremity, but he recovered his affairs by the victories of Rossbach and Lenthén. This success made him very popular in England, where he was regarded as the Protestant hero.

The new parliament was opened December 2, 1757. Never was a vital change of policy more boldly indicated. The speech from the throne declared that the succor and preservation of America demanded resolution, vigor, and despatch; that for a sure defence at home a national militia may in time become one good resource. "Relying with pleasure on the spirit and zeal of my people," said the king, "the body of my electoral troops, which I ordered hither at the desire of my Parliament, I have directed to return to my German dominions."

To trust to the British people for the defence of their country, instead of trusting to Hanoverians and Hessians, and to recommend a militia, which his majesty always ridiculed, were indeed evidences of a new state of affairs.

The electoral troops were accordingly sent home and a militia bill passed, though a similar bill had been rejected in the previous session. Under this act thirty-two thousand men were to be called out in England and Wales, and the regular army was increased to forty-five thousand men. Two Highland regiments were raised; one was given to Simon Frazer, son of Lord Lovat, and the other to Archibald Montgomery, brother to Lord Eglington.

In 1758 the war raged in all quarters of the world. In Africa the island of Gorea was wrested from the French, and Pitt projected the conquest of Cape Breton.

Whilst England was lying under the dread of a foreign invasion great events were taking place in the distant settlement of

the East India Company, and the success of Lord Clive laid the foundation of the Indian empire.

Ample subsidies were forwarded to Frederick of Prussia, so that he was enabled to make head against the coalition formed for his overthrow.

Pitt recalled General Loudoun from the command of the American expedition, and General Amherst was despatched to replace him, with Wolfe as second in command, and a fleet, commanded by Admiral Saunders, was to co-operate.

On June 2, 1758, a fleet of one hundred and fifty ships, bearing twelve thousand troops, appeared off Louisburg; the soldiers were conveyed to the shore in boats, and Wolfe was the first to land. He led his men to the attack on the French, who were drawn up to oppose their landing. The defences were very strong, and it was the end of July before the place capitulated, with six thousand prisoners of war. Cape Breton once more formed part of the British dominions. The French fleet in the harbor was utterly destroyed.

The year 1759 was one of the most memorable years in the history of Britain. An army of English and Germans defeated the French at Minden, Crefeld, and other places on the continent, but the chief success that year was achieved in Canada. The French had colonized that province in the reign of Francis I., but it was not till the following century that the cities of Quebec and Montreal arose. Pitt's plan of invasion was by three separate columns to unite at Quebec. One of these, composed of colonists and Indians, under General Prideaux and Sir William Johnson, was to advance to Oswego, on Lake Ontario, and after reducing Fort Niagara on the Niagara River, proceed down the lake and the St. Lawrence to Montreal; another, of eight thousand men, under the command of General Wolfe, was to proceed up the St. Lawrence and lay siege to Quebec, while in the centre the main army, under General Amherst, was to attack Ticonderoga, secure the navigation of Lake Champlain, and, proceeding by the River Richelieu, to form a junction with Wolfe.

The first and last of these expeditions succeeded as far as they went; Niagara and Ticonderoga were captured, but it was too

late in the season to form a junction with Wolfe. The fleet carried Wolfe safely to the island of Orleans, below Quebec, where the army disembarked June 27, 1759. Wolfe formed a camp on the westernmost point of the island, where Quebec rose on his view, strong in its natural position, but without artificial defences. Quebec at that time contained a population of about seven thousand. The Marquis de Montcalm, the French Governor of Canada, lay with an army of ten thousand men outside the city, in a strong position. All Wolfe's attempts to draw him from that position having failed, it only remained for him to attack him in his intrenchments. An assault on July 31st having been repulsed, Wolfe determined on the hazardous exploit of proceeding up the St. Lawrence and scaling the heights of Abraham, though through deaths, sickness, and the necessary detachments for securing important points, he could muster only about three thousand six hundred men. On the night of September 13th the army was conveyed silently up the river in boats to a small cove, now called Wolfe's Cove, overhung by lofty rocks. Wolfe himself was one of the first to leap on shore. The precipitous path was climbed, an outpost of the enemy fled in alarm, and at daylight the British army stood arrayed upon the heights, without cavalry, and having only a single gun.

Montcalm was now obliged to abandon his position and advance to give battle. The English, by Wolfe's direction, reserved their fire till the enemy was within forty yards, and then delivered a well-directed and destructive volley. Many fell; the rest wavered. Wolfe, though wounded, seized the favorable moment and sprang forward, ordering his grenadiers to charge. At this instant he was struck by another ball in the groin, and shortly after by a third in the breast, which caused him to fall, and he was conveyed to the rear. Before he breathed his last an officer who was standing by exclaimed: "See how they run!" "Who run?" eagerly cried Wolfe. "The enemy," cried the officer. "Then God be praised!" said Wolfe; "I shall die happy," and immediately expired. Thus fell this gallant officer at the early age of thirty-three.

Montcalm, the French commander, was also slain. Quebec

capitulated on September 18, 1759; the French garrison was conveyed, by agreement, to the nearest French port, and in the following year the conquest of all Canada was completed, and Fort Duquesne, the original cause of the war, was surrendered. Its name was changed to Pittsburg, after Pitt, the Prime Minister.

Parliament was opened by commission November 13, 1759. Peace was talked of, but it was urged that such supplies should be granted as would enable his majesty to sustain and press with effect all our extensive operations against the enemy, and in the course of the session £15,500,000 was voted for the expenses of the government.

The year 1760 was not a year of political excitement to the English people. The war on the continent went on; the defence of the conquests of the former year required no great exertions. There was little domestic agitation except a ministerial difference with the court, and Parliament had little more to do than vote supplies, when a sudden event came, which, in a short time, changed the whole aspect of affairs. The reign of George II. came suddenly to a close by the bursting of the right ventricle of his heart, October 25, 1760. He died in the seventy-seventh year of his age and the thirty-third of his reign. He was succeeded by his grandson, George William Frederick.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—France: Louis XV.; Emperors of the West: Charles VII., Francis I.; Spain: Philip V., Ferdinand VI., Charles III.; Russia: Catherine, Peter II., Anne, John VI., Elizabeth; Prussia: Frederick II. (Frederick the Great).

George III.—A.D. 1760–1820.

Born June 4, 1738, in London.

Crowned, September 22, 1761.

Married, September 8, 1761, Charlotte, daughter of the Duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz. Issue :

George Augustus Frederick, afterward George IV.

Frederick, Duke of York and Albany.

William Henry, Duke of Clarence, afterward William IV.

Edward, Duke of Kent ; married, May 29, 1818, Victoria Maria Louisa, daughter of Duke of Coburg-Saalfield, and widow of Prince of Leinengen. Issue :

Alexandrina Victoria, born May 24, 1819, who became the empress-queen, Victoria I.

Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, afterward King of Hanover.

Augustus Frederick, Duke of Sussex.

Adolphus Frederick, Duke of Cambridge.

Octavius ; died young.

Alfred ; died young.

Charlotte.

Augusta.

Elizabeth.

Mary.

Sophia.

Amelia.

George III. died at Windsor, January 29, 1820.

GEORGE WILLIAM FREDERICK, son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, and his wife, the Princess Augusta of Saxe Coburg, was born in London, June 4, 1738.

He was the first Hanoverian king born and educated in England. He was not likely to be well educated at the court of his father, nor did the death of that parent improve his prospects in that way. His mother confined his early associations to a small circle, wishing to preserve him from the profligacy of the day, in which she was successful ; but he was brought up more as a prince of the House of Stuart might have been than the heir apparent of a constitutional monarchy.

His disposition was arbitrary and crafty, and his character full of cool dissimulation.

On the death of his father, March 20, 1751, he was created Prince of Wales, and his education was provided for by the king by the appointment of a governor, a preceptor, and a

deputy-preceptor, and an act of Parliament was passed, "that, in the event of the demise of the crown before the Prince of Wales attained the age of eighteen years, his mother should be guardian of his person, but, as regent of the kingdom, she should act by and with the advice of a council composed of the Duke of Cumberland and nine principal officers of the state."

The princess, his mother, had withdrawn him from the hands of the distinguished men whom the king had given him as governors, and intrusted him to sub-preceptors of her own choosing. Her constant friend and adviser was Lord Bute, who had thereby acquired the greatest influence over the young prince, and it was understood that henceforth his advice would chiefly regulate the policy of the crown.

On October 25, 1760, news was brought to the Prince of Wales that his grandfather was dead. It was an event which must have been some time expected, and the prince and his friends were prepared for it.

A meeting of the Privy Council was held, and after the customary oaths were taken, the king delivered an address which had been prepared by Lord Bute, and the late ministry were continued in office. The king was then proclaimed in the usual form.

The Earl of Bute was made a Cabinet Minister, Privy Councillor, and Groom of the Stole.

On November 18, 1760, the king opened Parliament. Lord Hardwicke prepared the speech, of which he sent a draft to Mr. Pitt. The king had inserted in his own handwriting, which was long treasured up in loyal memories: "Born and educated in this country, I glory in the name of Briton; and the peculiar happiness of my life will ever consist in promoting the welfare of a people whose loyalty and warm affection to me I consider as the greatest and most permanent security to my throne."

The House of Commons voted a civil list of £800,000 upon the king surrendering the hereditary revenue. The annual subsidy to the King of Prussia was renewed, and supplies were granted to the extent of £20,000,000.

The enthusiasm with which the king was greeted by his sub-

jects was in striking contrast with the coldness that had attended the appearance of George II.

The behavior of the young king was at first all that could be desired. In his family relations he was nearly always respectable. He still added to his popularity by directing a change in the law with regard to the judges, so that their commissions no longer terminated with the death of the king; they henceforward held their appointments for life, unless deprived of them by the joint action of the two Houses of Parliament. They were thus rendered absolutely independent of the crown.

On March 21, 1761, Parliament was dissolved by proclamation, and indications of changes in the government were foreshadowed.

The Duke of Newcastle, who had kept all patronage in his hands, now found places filled without his knowledge. When he complained he was met by the uniform answer, "that it was the king's desire;" and Bute openly rebuked Lord Anson for filling the admiralty boroughs without consulting the king. Shortly after the dissolution of Parliament there was a change in certain members of the cabinet. Legge gave place as Chancellor of the Exchequer to Lord Barrington; Charles Townshend became Secretary at War, and Dashwood, another follower of Bute, took the place that Townshend vacated, and Bute was made one of the Secretaries of State, in the place of Lord Holderness.

On September 8, 1761, George married the Princess Charlotte Sophia, sister of the Duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz, who shared his throne for fifty-seven years, and bore him fifteen children. All but two of them grew up. She was described as sensible, cheerful, remarkably genteel, with quick capacity, and good judgment, and with a kindly nature, often breaking through the restraints of courtly etiquette.

The coronation of the king and queen took place on September 22, 1761, without much ceremony.

The negotiations for peace with France were at an end, and a more extended war was imminent; a family compact was being formed between France and Spain, and Pitt was for anticipating their arrangements by commencing the war, but was

overruled in the cabinet. He resigned his office on October 5, 1761, but the future showed the wisdom of his advice, for the conduct of Spain was such that England was compelled to declare war against her, January 4, 1762. This war was a series of successes on the part of England; Havana was captured, with a large part of the Island of Cuba; the Philippines were reduced; treasure-ships of immense value were taken from the Spaniards, and the naval and colonial supremacy of England was established.

Already the impossibility of Bute's peaceful view was demonstrated, but he none the less prevented the payment of the Prussian subsidy, although this looked very much like a breach of faith.

This change of policy afforded Newcastle the opportunity of leaving the ministry with dignity; he was conscious that sooner or later he would be got rid of. On his resignation Bute at once named himself Prime Minister, and proceeded to carry out, in some points at least, his favorite principles. These were peace at almost any price, the abandonment of continental connections, the increase and restoration of the power of the crown and government without bribery. But these aspirations degenerated in practice into a war, which was successful, owing to his predecessor's arrangements, a vindictive assault upon the Whig party, and the most shameless corruption ever practised in England. The expeditions which Pitt had planned were carried out.

But Bute, in his eagerness for peace, did not even wait to hear the result of the expeditions, but at once reopened peace negotiations with France, and on February 10, 1763, the peace was signed at Fontainebleau. The conditions were much the same as the preceding year.

America passed wholly to the English, the French keeping the right of fishing on the coast of Newfoundland. England kept Tobago, Dominica, St. Vincent, and Granada, and restored Martinique and St. Lucia. Minorca and Belleisle were to be exchanged. The French evacuated their conquests in Germany, Gorea was restored to France, and the English army evacuated Germany.

In India the French were to have no military establishments; their factories were restored to them, but they could never recover their lost influence in that country, and soon after their East India Company was dissolved. The courage and genius of Clive had now converted an association of traders into the rulers of a large and magnificent empire. Though established in the latter part of Elizabeth's reign, it was not till the time of Charles II. that the East India Company made any advances in wealth and power. Charles granted them a new charter, conveying many exclusive rights and privileges, and also ceded to them the settlement of Bombay, which he had received as a marriage portion with Catherine of Braganza. Fort St. George and the town of Madras had already been founded on the Carnatic. The first English factories were at Bantam and Surat, but these were afterward abandoned. At the time of the Revolution, a new company was formed, the rivalry of which produced great mischief till, in 1702, they were both united.

Before the accession of the House of Hanover, the three presidencies of Madras (Fort George), Calcutta (Fort William), and Bombay had already been erected, but no central government yet existed. These settlements had but little territory attached to them, and often trembled for their own safety.

The French, who had established an East India Company in the reign of Louis XIV., were the only formidable rivals the English had in India. The Portuguese were their allies, and their power was but small; the Dutch chiefly confined their attention to Java and the neighboring islands. The French had two important settlements: Chandernagore, on the Hoogly, higher up than Fort William, and Pondicherry, on the coast of the Carnatic, about eighty miles south of Madras.

They also possessed two fertile islands in the Indian Ocean, the Isle of Bourbon and the Mauritius, or the Isle of France. The wars of the mother countries extended to these colonies. In 1746, the French, under La Bourdonnais, took Madras; and Duplex, Governor of Pondicherry, in violation of the capitulation, carried the principal inhabitants to that town, and paraded them through the streets in triumph. Madras was restored at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

In 1755, Clive returned to India with the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the king's service, and the appointment from the East India Company as governor of Fort St. David. His abilities were soon called into action. The Surajah Dowlah, Viceroy of Bengal, had taken Calcutta, and thrust the English inhabitants, to the number of one hundred and forty-six, into a small and loathsome dungeon known as the Black Hole, where in one night (June 20, 1756), the greater part of them were stifled. But a signal vengeance was soon taken. The following January Clive retook Calcutta with an army of nine hundred Europeans and one thousand five hundred Sepoys, kept at bay the Surajah's army of forty thousand men, and compelled him to make peace. His next exploit was to defeat the Surajah Dowlah at Plassy, 1757. This victory decided the fate of India, and laid the foundation of the Anglo-Indian empire.

Clive was now made Governor of Bengal by the East India Company. In 1760 he returned to England, having previously defeated an attempt of the Dutch upon Calcutta. He received an Irish peerage as Lord Clive and Baron Plassy, and obtained a seat in the House of Commons.

The peace was very unpopular at home, and irritating to our German friends, so that England stood now absolutely without allies.

Differences of opinion in the cabinet occasioned the resignation of Granville, and he was succeeded by the Earl of Halifax, and the leadership in the Commons, with a seat in the Cabinet, was given to Mr. Fox.

Owing to the peace, Lord Bute became very unpopular, together with his almost exclusive patronage of his Scotch countrymen. Wilkes branded him with the epithet of *favorite*. In some of the rural districts he was burnt in effigy, and when he walked the streets he was followed by a gang of prize-fighters to protect him. These symptoms of popular dislike frightened him into a resignation (April 8th) to the surprise both of king and people. At the same time Fox was raised to the House of Lords, with the title of Lord Holland, still, however, retaining his office. Bute was succeeded by George Granville, who became First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of

the Exchequer. The two Secretaries of State were Lords Egremont and Halifax.

On April 19, 1763, the king closed the session of Parliament. His majesty dwelt on the conditions of the peace as honorable to the crown and beneficial to the people.

This speech was immediately attacked, and the peace denounced with peculiar bitterness, by John Wilkes, in the *North Briton*—the celebrated number 45. Granville was bold and impolitic enough to order its prosecution, to which circumstance it owes its notoriety. Wilkes was a worthless profligate, but he had a remarkable power of enlisting popular sympathy on his side, and, by a singular irony of fortune, he became the chief instrument in bringing about three of the greatest advances which our constitution has ever made.

At a later period he awoke the nation to a conviction of the need of parliamentary reform, by his defence of the rights of constituencies against the despotism of the House of Commons, and he took the lead in the struggle which put an end to the secrecy of parliamentary proceedings.

The prosecution of the *North Briton* in 1764 first established the right of the press to discuss public affairs. Wilkes was sent to prison on a "general warrant" from the Secretary of State.

The legality of such a warrant, which did not name the person to be arrested, and which was not issued by a magistrate, was at once questioned, and no such warrant has ever been issued since.

A writ of habeas corpus freed Wilkes from prison, but he was soon prosecuted for libel. The House of Commons condemned the paper, which was still before the civil courts, as a "false, scandalous, and seditious libel." The House of Lords at the same time voted a pamphlet found among Wilkes's papers to be blasphemous, and advised a prosecution. Wilkes fled to France and was soon expelled from the House of Commons.

But the assumption of an arbitrary judicial power by both Houses, and the system of terror which Granville put in force against the press, by issuing two hundred injunctions against different journals, roused a storm of indignation throughout the

country. Every street resounded with the cries of "Wilkes and liberty."

Bold as he was, Granville dared go no further, and six years later the failure of the prosecution directed against an anonymous journalist named "Junius," for his letter to the king, established the right of the press to criticise the conduct, not of ministers and parliament only, but of the sovereign himself.

Another impolitic step of Granville's, but attended with far more momentous consequences, was the extending of the Stamp Act to the North American colonies.

The late war had been very expensive, and as it had been partly undertaken for the defence of those colonies, it occurred to Granville, in an evil hour, that they might not unjustly be called upon to bear part of the burden. He consulted the agents of the several North American colonies in London upon his project; inquired whether any other tax would be more agreeable, and gave a year's notice of his plan by a resolution entered in the journals of the Commons in 1764.

These colonies had been continually increasing in strength and prosperity, and at this time consisted of thirteen States, with a population of about two million of whites and half a million colored people. They were, first, the New England colonies, settled by the Puritans, consisting of the four States of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island; second, New York; third, New Jersey; fourth, Pennsylvania; fifth, Delaware; sixth, Maryland; seventh, Virginia; eighth, the two States of North and South Carolina; and ninth, Georgia. Each of these colonies was governed on the English model, and had a House of Assembly elected by the people; there was also a governor appointed by the crown, and a Council. In Connecticut the governor was elective.

Hitherto the mother country and her colonies had lived in tolerable harmony, but at this time the American colonists were in a distressed and irritable condition. They were suffering from the effects of a terrible border war with the Indians; they considered themselves aggrieved by some new duties that had been imposed on their foreign trade, as well as by the stringent regulations by which their illicit traffic was repressed. All of

them were decidedly opposed to a stamp act, which, from its nature, was far more obnoxious than any custom-house duties. The latter might be regarded as imperial—the former was a sort of local tax or excise. Nor would they suggest any substitute, but based their opposition on the broad constitutional principle that there should be no taxation without representation, and that they were not represented in the House of Commons.

They intimated, however, a wish that, as in former instances, a letter from the Secretary of State, in the king's name, requiring contributions for his service, should be laid before the different Houses of Assembly; and there seems little reason to doubt that, if this course had been adopted, the minister would have raised as much as he expected from the stamp act, the produce of which was estimated at less than £100,000 a year.

Parliament met January 10, 1765, and the question of the Stamp Act before the previous House was again brought forward. It met with little opposition. Pitt was absent from illness, one or two of his party made a slight resistance, and it attracted little public notice.

Nobody suspected that this little spark would burst out into a vast and unextinguishable flame. Far different was the spirit which it excited in America. The act was reprinted, with a death's head at the top in place of the king's arms, and was hawked about under the title of the "Folly of England and ruin of America." The vessels in Boston hoisted their colors at half-mast, and the muffled bells of the churches tolled out a death knell. The colonists sent over representations so strong against being taxed in England that it was not thought decent or safe to present their memorial to Parliament. They could not see in Granville's proposition for a paltry tax any other than the beginning of an attempt to tax them largely without their own consent.

The Stamp Act passed both Houses and received the royal assent March 22, 1765.

The same year the first indications appeared of that mental malady which clouded the king's later days. A regency bill was consequently passed, appointing the queen, and the descend-

ants of the late king and queen, resident in England, to act in that office, and, through the influence of Granville, excluding the Princess Dowager.

In July, 1765, the Granville ministry were dismissed, and the Rockingham administration came into office July 10, composed of men with very little parliamentary experience. This weak government found on its hands a question of great difficulty. The Stamp Act had been badly received in America; there had been riots in many towns, involving a great loss of property.

In January, 1766, Parliament met, and on the 14th the subject was brought before the House. Burke made his maiden speech and was followed by Pitt, who declared that Parliament had no right to tax the colonies, for taxation and representation went hand in hand. He, however, like the Americans, drew a line between taxation and customs. Customs he regarded in the light of trade regulations, and therefore in the hands of the imperial legislature.

Pitt's bold speech on several occasions encouraged the ministers to act, and after a long examination of witnesses, among whom Benjamin Franklin, who had come over to oppose the act, was the most important. The repeal of the Stamp Act was carried amid the enthusiasm of the mercantile and liberal part of the nation, on February 21, 1766.

A disagreement ensued in the Cabinet, and the king was told that the ministry could not get on as they were, and his majesty, in July, resolved to send for Mr. Pitt, who advised the king, and a cabinet was formed, with the Duke of Grafton as First Lord of the Treasury and Mr. Pitt as Lord Privy Seal, who was elevated to the House of Peers as Earl of Chatham, July 29, 1766, but owing to severe illness was not able to attend to his official duties, and the Duke of Grafton became the real minister.

While Chatham was absent from his post the reckless Chancellor of the Exchequer, Townshend, brought in a scheme for again raising revenue from America. The sum was a small one—£40,000—and raised upon tea, glass, and paper, and therefore falling, it might be urged, under the head of those mercantile arrangements which the colonies admitted the right of Parlia-

ment to make; but in the present state of affairs in America it was an act of madness.

What Chatham called the rotten part of the constitution was, early in the year 1768, brought into full play. There was a general election, in which bribery and the purchase of seats were shamelessly employed; £4,000 is said to have been the average price of a small borough. Oxford offered to re-elect its members for £7,500, to be applied to the liquidation of its corporation debt. And to show how inefficient the representation was, out of a population of eight millions there were only one hundred and sixty thousand voters.

The country was now in a very unsettled condition, and riots extended over the whole land.

The Earl of Chatham and Lord Shelborne retired from the Cabinet, and Grafton, without any views of his own, became a mere tool in the hands of the king and his party. George was set with dogged obstinacy upon the suppression of insubordination in America and the destruction of Wilkes and his party in England.

Nor did the ministry strengthen itself by its dealings with America. The new imposts had been received with great indignation by the colonists, especially in Massachusetts. There the Governor, Francis Barnard, appears to have been totally destitute of all power of conciliation. The Assembly, in its quarrel with the Governor, issued a circular letter to the other colonies, calling for their co-operation against the new taxes. The Society of Sons and Daughters of Liberty, who refused to use imported goods, multiplied in other colonies. The views of the government was not conciliation, but coercion, and troops and ships of war were crowded into Boston.

In England the feeling was strongly against the Americans, and coercive measures were recommended and applauded.

Grafton next proposed conciliatory measures. He suggested the removal of all taxation of America, but he was defeated in his own Cabinet. English pride forbade the council to accept a measure which they thought derogatory to the rights of an imperial nation.

Therefore, for the purpose of asserting that right, they agreed

to the removal of all taxes but one, and insisted that the tax on tea should be retained.

Thus the original principle of the right to tax was upheld, and the sting still left to rankle in the minds of the Americans.

In the following year appeared the celebrated letters of Junius, attacking the policy of the ministry, and especially the Duke of Grafton, who resigned early in January, 1770. The opposition seemed to have everything in their own hands, but owing to jealousies of the party the king was able to take advantage of the disunion, retain his own friends in office, and avoid a new Parliament being elected in the present excited state of the nation.

There was only one of the late ministry capable of assuming the position of Prime Minister. This was Lord North, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and to him the king immediately and successfully applied: and with his accession to the Premiership the unstable character of the government ceased, and he held office for twelve years. The modern Tory party dates from that time as a powerful and efficient organization. The king ruled as well as reigned, and attacks on American liberty were his acts, the guilt of the minister consisting in his being the tool, against his own convictions, of a master who was not always in possession of his reason.

The year 1771 is memorable for the successful assertion by the newspaper press of the right of reporting debates of Parliament. The printer of the debates was arrested on the king's proclamation, but released by the London magistrates.

In 1772 the king's message, provoked by the marriage of his brother, the Duke of Cumberland, with Mrs. Horton, secured the passage of the Royal Marriage Act, still in force, making the sovereign's consent necessary to marriages in the royal family.

When the American colonists found that Parliament had repealed all the duties passed by the act of 1667, except on tea, the spirit that prompted the non-importation agreements was somewhat allayed, and the citizens of New York determined, by a large majority, to resume importations from England, and

several orders were despatched for every kind of merchandise but tea.

Other provinces were indignant with the New Yorkists; Massachusetts maintained a position of sullen defiance. The discontent of the colonies had been sedulously kept alive by the skill and vigor of the leaders of the opposition party in England.

The East India Company had come to Parliament for a loan, and, as a sort of compensation, a bill was passed by the Commons which enabled them to export their teas from their London warehouses to the American colonies free from the English duties, and liable only to the much smaller duty to be levied in the colony. This would give the East India Company the chance to get rid of a large surplus stock, and enable the colonists to buy their tea considerably cheaper. To the colonists, however, it bore another aspect. The whole plan seemed to them a scheme to surprise or bribe them into compliance with the very measure of taxation they were so strenuously opposing.

On Sunday, November 28, 1773, the English merchant ship *Dartmouth* arrived at Boston with tea belonging to the East India Company. Shortly after two more ships arrived, and anchored by the side of the *Dartmouth*. The people kept watch night and day to prevent any attempt at landing the teas. Thirteen days after the arrival of the *Dartmouth*, the owner was summoned before the Boston Committee, and was told that his vessel and his tea must be taken back to London. It was out of his power to do so, he said.

He certainly had not the power, for the passages out of the harbor were guarded by two of the king's ships to prevent any vessel going to sea without a license.

On December 16th there was a meeting in Boston of seven thousand persons, who resolved that the tea should not be landed, and the master of the *Dartmouth* was ordered to apply to the governor for a pass for his vessel to proceed to London, but the governor refused to grant him a pass because his ship had not cleared her cargo. There was no more hesitation; forty-five men, disguised as Mohawks, went to the wharf where the ships were lying side by side, and in three hours had taken

possession of and deliberately emptied three hundred and forty-five chests of tea into the waters of the bay, and after the destruction was performed went quietly away.

Similar steps, though less violent, were taken elsewhere, and none of the tea sent over under this disastrous act found its way into the market.

Such violence and such contempt of authority exasperated the minds of the English people. Lord North seemed still to be inclined to conciliatory measures, but the other members of the Cabinet were too powerful for him, especially as the king's opinion, before which Lord North always yielded, was thrown into the scale on the side of severity. The Boston Port Bill was now passed; the Custom House, and consequently all the trade, was moved from Boston, and the port was declared closed, and Salem was chosen to take its place.

The anger excited by the bill was not confined to Boston; a feeling of indignation pervaded all over the colonies. Their sympathy was soon increased by fear for their own liberties, for a second bill was introduced, abrogating the whole charter of Massachusetts. Its popular charter was to be destroyed, and the colony was to become, in the strictest sense, a crown colony. The council was to be named by the crown, instead of by the people; and the judges, magistrates, and sheriffs were to be nominated and removed by the governor, without consulting the council.

All the other colonies naturally felt their charters insecure. In fact, all seemed to feel that the critical time had come. Henceforth an appeal to arms became almost certain, and the idea of claiming independence began to become prevalent. Virginia was the first to throw in her lot with Massachusetts.

A congress was summoned at Philadelphia, and was attended by representatives of all the colonies except Georgia. The English understood that the two great bills were little short of a declaration of war.

Hutchinson was recalled, and General Gage was made Governor of Massachusetts, while Boston was filled with troops. Of course, a quarrel between the new governor and the assembly was inevitable. The assembly was dissolved, and refusing

to disperse, collected and sat at Concord, constituting thus, in fact, a rebel government, whose orders were implicitly obeyed.

The general congress issued a declaration of rights, setting forth the rights of the colonists as Englishmen, and declaring that the late acts were infractions of these rights and must be repealed before America would submit, and passed a resolution forbidding importation from England, the use of imported goods, and, after one year, exportation to England.

A general election in England in September, 1774, made it plain that the temper of the people was no less bitter and determined in the mother country than in the colonies. A large ministerial majority was retained ready to support any acts of coercion.

The new parliament met November 29, 1774. There was an end of all domestic agitations.

The king, in his opening speech, asserted his determination "to withstand every attempt to weaken or impair the supreme authority of the legislature over all the dominions of my crown," and the address in answer to the speech was carried in both Houses by a large majority.

Early in January Lord Chatham brought forward a motion to withdraw the troops from Boston. He said: "I wish, my lords, not to lose a day in this urgent, pressing crisis. An hour now lost in allaying ferments in America may produce years of calamity." His motion was lost, 18 to 68. Chatham's arguments were in vain; the ministry declared they would send more troops instead of recalling any.

Edmund Burke proposed a series of conciliatory resolutions, but they were rejected by a vote of 270 against 78. The speech of the great statesman presented a masterly review of the wonderful growth of the American colonies, their successful industry, and their commercial importance to Great Britain.

Lord North made some conciliatory proposals, but they were not received. It was now too late for any schemes of reconciliation, and the appeal to arms began. In April, 1775, General Gage determined to destroy the stores collected at Concord, and sent a body of troops for that purpose. On their return they found themselves attacked from behind every hedge and cover,

and were compelled to retreat in a very distressed condition after a loss of two hundred and seventy men, and the war had commenced. Congress assumed the title of the United Colonies, and coercive measures were decreed against any province which should refuse its authority, and, conscious that the die was cast, proceeded to appoint a commander-in-chief of all its forces. Their choice fell upon Colonel Washington, a Virginian gentleman and a member of that body, who had seen some service in the frontier wars, and was much respected in his province.

Washington at once hurried to the seat of war, but before he arrived, June 17, 1775, the battle of Bunker Hill had been fought and won by the colonists.

The slowness which characterized the English generals at the beginning of the war is probably to be traced to the prevalent idea that reconciliation was still possible. Even at that time Congress was sending to the king a last appeal; but this document, known as the Olive-branch Petition, was not received in England. There was a technical objection to it which secured its rejection; it purported to come from the "Congress," an illegal and unrecognized body.

Even before the Olive-branch was sent Congress had determined to take advantage of the successes of the preceding year, and had organized, under Generals Montgomery and Arnold, an attack on Canada. Meanwhile, the dilatory conduct of Gage had lost Boston to the English, and Washington found himself strong enough to take and fortify the Dorchester Heights, and the British retired to Halifax.

Lord Howe was now in command of the British, and he had received full powers, in accordance with a late act of Parliament, to receive the submission of any colony, and after such submission to grant pardon and redress.

In June, Lee, of Virginia, proposed to Congress that the colonies should declare themselves independent. The numbers, on division, proved to be exactly equal, but Dickinson, the writer of the "Pennsylvania Farmer's Letters," and the leader of the moderate party, consented to withdraw, and the motion for independence was thus carried by a majority of one, and on July 4, 1776, the Declaration of Independence passed. The

battle of Brooklyn was fought on August 27th, and resulted in a victory for the British. Large bodies of Hanoverian and Hessian troops were employed by England, and for several years the war was marked by just enough success to encourage the king to persevere. Gradually other countries were drawn into the contest, until it had assumed a European character. War between England and France began in 1778, and Spain and Holland were soon ranked among England's active enemies. The northern powers formed an armed neutrality. Gibraltar was beleaguered by an immense fleet.

In 1777 the rope house of the dockyard at Portsmouth was burned down. The fire was considered accidental until a quantity of combustibles were found in the hemp house of the same yard. About this time an incendiary attempt was made upon the dockyard at Plymouth, and then some warehouses were fired at Bristol, with an evident attempt to burn the shipping lying alongside.

At this period Great Britain was ill prepared for a naval war. Her system of manning the navy by pressing was as inefficient as it was disgraceful to a country calling itself free.

The session of Parliament closed in May, 1777, by a grant of £100,000 extra to the civil list, which already amounted to £800,000 a year, but on examination it was discovered that £600,000 had been spent since 1769 in secret service. An attack by the opposition, led by Lord Chatham, was now made, urging the king to arrest the misfortunes in America, and a motion made by Chatham to that effect was lost. The same year Burgoyne's army surrendered at Saratoga.

The disasters in America had called out considerable enthusiasm in England. Money had been largely subscribed for sending out more troops, and the temper of the nation was evidently for pressing the war with energy, regardless of consequences. In vain did Lord North express his desire to resign. He declared the necessity of conciliatory measures. The king, strong in the popular feeling, reproached him for intending to desert him, as he called it, and North remained in office. He brought forward the conciliation bill, which passed without difficulty, and all American demands short of independence were granted.

All officers appointed by Congress were acknowledged, and commissioners, with the most ample powers to discuss and arrange all points of quarrel, were appointed. That bill had hardly passed when an open rupture with France took place, owing to the treaty concluded with that power and Congress being notified in insulting terms to the British court. Lord Chatham died May 11, 1778, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

The pacific measures of the British government produced not the slightest change in the policy of the leaders of the American revolution.

Washington held that the propositions of Lord North must have proceeded from despair of the nation's succeeding against the United Colonies, and when the royal commissioners arrived they were treated with little ceremony. Congress refused to hold a conference with them unless they should withdraw the naval and military power of Great Britain or acknowledge the independence of America in direct terms. No reply was given to the explanatory offers of the commissioners—offers which, if made in the early days of the contest, would have commanded not only willing obedience, but fervent gratitude. The commissioners determined to return to England.

Some of the most obnoxious penal laws against Roman Catholics were repealed in this year. They were the law which punished the celebration of Catholic worship as felony in a foreigner, as high treason in a native, and the law by which the estates of popish heirs educated abroad passed to the next Protestant heir, by which a Protestant heir could take possession of his father's or relative's estate during the lifetime of the real proprietor, and by which papists could acquire property only by descent.

In the autumn of 1779 Paul Jones, in command of a small American squadron, consisting of the *Bonhomme Richard* and two other ships, did great damage on the east coasts of England and Scotland. Going north he fell in with a number of ships from the Baltic, convoyed by the frigate *Scrapis*, of fifty guns, and the sloop-of-war *Scarborough*, of twenty-four guns, both of which he took. The *Bonhomme Richard* sank two days after the action from damage sustained.

The obstinate persistence in the war in America had brought upon the country its natural consequences—excessive taxation and interruption of the usual course of profitable industry, and the minority in Parliament, whether peers or commoners, saw that to renew their strength as a governing power they must identify themselves more distinctly with the people. The abuses consequent upon the excessive number of sinecure offices, and of large pensions unsanctioned by parliamentary authority called for economical reform. The scandalous proportion of members of the House of Commons returned for rotten boroughs demanded reform in Parliament. A vast amount of public opinion was brought to bear upon these two points, and associations were formed to redress the grievances.

On April 6, 1780, Mr. Dunning produced the startling resolution in the House: “That it is the opinion of this House that the influence of the crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished.”

This resolution, with a very slight alteration, he carried against the government by a majority of eighteen.

It was followed by two other resolutions in the same direction, one declaring the right of the House to reform the civil list, the other that the abuses complained of should be immediately redressed; both were carried. But when the House again met, and he proceeded to more detailed motions, Dunning found that the corrupt body he addressed, though willing enough to affirm abstract resolutions, had no real liking for reform. His majorities rapidly diminished, and finally no action was taken upon the resolutions he had carried.

The same year occurred the Lord George Gordon riots, coming out of the repeal of the Roman Catholic Penal Laws. London was at the mercy of the mob for four days. The chapels of the Sardinian and Bavarian embassies were burnt, and, after a day of comparative quiet, the mob, finding itself unopposed, proceeded to renewed acts of violence. The prisons were broken open, Catholic chapels burnt and sacked, the shops of Catholic tradesmen pillaged, and the rioters, having long passed out of the control of their religious leaders, were now guided by leaders of their own. The bank was attacked, more churches

sacked and prisons opened. At last ten thousand troops were called out, and about five hundred of the rioters were killed, and the crisis was over. Many prisoners were taken and twenty-nine were executed. The Lord Mayor was tried and found guilty of criminal negligence, and Lord George Gordon was tried for high treason, but acquitted.

In the midst of these difficulties at home there had been some rays of comfort from the success of both fleet and army abroad. Early in the year Admiral Rodney had been placed in command of a fleet which was to act in the West Indies. On his way out he had orders to relieve Gibraltar, which had been closely invested since the beginning of the war with Spain. He met the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, and gained over it a complete victory, and Gibraltar and Minorca were relieved.

He then proceeded to the West Indies, where De Grasse, with the French and Spanish fleets, could not be brought to an engagement, and where for a time nothing was done. Though Rodney's successes and those of Admiral Digby in the Bay of Biscay were somewhat neutralized by the entire destruction of the West and East India fleets, ably planned and carried out by the Spaniards off the Azores.

Early in 1781 Rodney captured from the Dutch, who had joined the coalition against England, the wealthy island of St. Eustatius. Much of the property collected there was supplies required for the enemy's ships, which was all declared a prize of war.

The coalition against England was becoming too powerful to be withstood; a drawn battle with the Dutch had been fought off the Dogger-bank, and Sir Hyde Parker had been compelled to withdraw his shattered fleet into English quarters.

The French made an attack upon Jersey, which was saved, after already falling into their hands, by the intrepidity of Major Pierson, who unfortunately lost his life by almost the last shot fired.

After varied successes and defeats, the English army under Cornwallis found itself on the southern bank of the York River, and near the village of Gloucester. The position he occupied

was not a happy one; it was in fact untenable without command of the sea, which he had lost.

He was besieged by an army of eighteen thousand men, with large and powerful artillery, being in part supplied by the French fleet. His expected reinforcements had failed him, and finding all his guns silenced and his ammunition drawing to a close, felt he had to choose between surrender and an effort to withdraw his troops from their untenable position. He determined to attempt the latter plan. His scheme was a desperate one; his troops were to be transported in boats to Gloucester; they were then to break through the enemy's lines, which were not strong in that direction, to seize the horses of the besiegers and of the neighboring country people, and make their way to New York. The boats, with their loads, had already crossed once, when a storm arose which rendered the further prosecution of the plan impossible, and when morning dawned Cornwallis had no alternative but to make terms.

He agreed to surrender all his troops as prisoners of war, and on October 19, 1781, four thousand British soldiers, who remained fit for work, marched out with the honors of war between the long lines of the American and French army, and laid down their arms.

The close of the war under such circumstances of failure could not but bring with it the fall of the ministry. The news arrived at a striking time—but two days before the opening of the session.

With such a weapon in their hand, and with the stored-up rancor of twelve years of opposition, the leaders of the Whigs pressed motion after motion against the government.

Fox and Burke vied with each other in their bitter assaults, and the young Pitt, who had come into Parliament, rapidly assumed a high position on the same side.

Outside Parliament vigorous opposition meetings were held, and the public anger was raised to its climax by a succession of misfortunes which befell the British arms.

Admiral Kempenfeldt found himself completely outnumbered in the West Indies, and the whole of the Leeward Islands, except Jamaica, Barbadoes, and Antigua, were lost, Minorca had

surrendered, and the Irish difficulties were becoming troublesome.

The king was obliged to submit to a Whig ministry, headed by the Marquis of Rockingham and Charles James Fox, March 20, 1782. Lord Rockingham's death, July 1st, caused the new ministry to fall to pieces, and power passed into the hands of the Earl of Shelburne and young William Pitt.

American independence was acknowledged. Shelburne assured Dr. Franklin that the new ministry sincerely wished for peace, and if the independence of the United States was agreed to, there was nothing to hinder a pacification.

Franklin declared that America could only treat in concert with France, and it was agreed to treat for a general peace.

In the meantime, Rodney returned to the West Indies, where he joined Hood's squadron, and they completely destroyed the French fleet. The first action, off the island of Guadalupe, took place on April 12th, where De Grasse was taken prisoner, and another on the 19th, under Hood, in the Mona passage.

In spite of this success, the ministry continued its efforts for peace. So long as there was any hope of securing better terms by the capture of Gibraltar, the French would not come to the point. Gibraltar had now been three years besieged; British fleets had twice forced the blockade, and relieved the garrison. General Eliot's defence was vigorous, and inspired his troops with confidence.

De Crillon, who had just returned from his success at Minorca, took command of the allied French and Spanish forces, and constructed ten huge floating batteries, with walls of wood and iron seven feet thick, shot-proof and bomb-proof. A fleet of forty first-rates in the harbor, and a fire from four hundred pieces of artillery—in answer to which the English could only produce but one hundred—was to annihilate the fortress. Eliot was not disheartened; he concentrated all his fire, with red-hot shot, upon the terrible batteries; for a long time they seemed impenetrable, but at length the constant stream of hot shot took effect, and at mid-day of September 13th their fire slackened, and before midnight eight out of the ten were in flames. The siege was over; the fleet was driven from the

harbor owing to stress of weather, and on the arrival of Lord Howe with the relieving squadron, he was able to enter and relieve the garrison unmolested.

This great success, following so close upon the West India victory, made it plain to the allies that England was by no means so prostrate as they had imagined, and there was no longer much difficulty in settling the preliminaries of a peace. France accepted readily the offers which had been rejected in the earlier part of the year.

Peace was made January 20, 1783. The English ceded the little islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, off Newfoundland, and the African establishments of Senegal and Gorea. In the West Indies everything was restored to the same condition as before the war, with the exception of Tobago, which was given to France. In the East Indies, the French were permitted to retain their commercial establishments, but without military occupation.

Spain kept Minorca, and the Floridas were given up to her—better terms than she had a right to expect; England received in exchange the Bahamas, and the right of cutting logwood in Honduras. Holland, with whom the English government had in vain attempted a separate treaty, gained nothing by her rejection of those overtures, but was obliged to agree to a mutual restoration of conquests.

A provisional treaty had already been made with America, November 30, 1782, by which the independence of the States was formally declared, boundaries settled, and commercial relations re-established; the only difficulty was the claim for compensation for loss of property raised by the American loyalists.

On the opening of Parliament, in April, 1783, Lord Shelburne found himself in the minority upon resolutions that had been moved condemnatory of the peace. He at once resigned.

After a few ineffectual struggles, the king had to accept the coalition ministry, under the nominal head of the Duke of Portland.

Nothing could have been more distasteful to him. He found himself suddenly robbed of the whole advantage of twenty years of political scheming, and apparently bound hand and

foot by the detested Whig oligarchy. He hated them intensely, and talked of going to Hanover because of the coercion to which he was subjected. He probably refrained from going because of the hint, that, while it would be easy to reach that country, it might not be so easy to get back to England. His submission was short-lived; the coalition broke down in an attempt to put a stop to the misgovernment in India.

The India bill passed the Commons, but was rejected by the Lords, in consequence of royal influence having been brought to bear on the minds of some of the peers. The king then dismissed the ministry, and placed Pitt at the head of the administration, December 28, 1783. That minister received great opposition from the Whigs, led by Fox. "It was a contest," said Dr. Johnson, "whether the nation should be ruled by the sceptre of George III. or by the tongue of Fox." But the tide had now fairly turned. Pitt's bravery was exciting the sympathy of the people, while the unmeasured virulence of Fox and his party was constantly damaging them. On March 25, 1784, Pitt recommended the king to dissolve Parliament.

The elections made it evident that the feeling of the nation was entirely with Pitt. No less than one hundred and sixty of Fox's friends lost their seats.

Firm in his parliamentary majority and in support of the king, Pitt proceeded to settle the financial and domestic affairs of the nation, which were naturally in a bad condition after the close of an unsuccessful war. Having thus cleared the way for general legislation, he proceeded to bring in his India bill, which passed through both Houses, and laid the foundation of the government of that country, which continued in force until the year 1858.

He also brought in a bill removing the restrictions of trade from Ireland, so that from henceforth England and Ireland would become one nation, and that goods landed in Ireland could be exported to England without further duty; but, for party purposes, or want of sufficient knowledge of political economy, it was rejected. Eighteen years afterward he succeeded in completing the measure.

In 1786 a commercial treaty was made with France, by which

prohibitory duties between the two countries were repealed, a moderate tariff was established, and the famous Methuen treaty with Portugal was abrogated. He also greatly simplified the custom duties.

The debts of the Prince of Wales were brought before Parliament, but the king would not sanction a bill of relief. In August, 1786, an attempt on the king's life was made by an insane woman named Margaret Nicholson.

Public affairs went on smoothly, save that the impeachment of Warren Hastings, who was patronized by the king, was brought about by the aid of Burke. He was taken into custody, but released on bail, and his trial did not actually begin until February, 1788.

The trial took place in Westminster Hall, the Peers sitting as judges, presided over by the Lord Chancellor, and the accusations being supported by the managers appointed by the House of Commons, assisted by the most eminent men in England. Among their number were Fox, Burke, Sheridan, and Wyndham. The trial, the greatest in English annals, dragged its slow length until 1795. Men's passions cooled, Whigs had turned Tories and Tories Whigs, and when many years had passed and Warren Hastings appeared in the House, the representatives of England rose in respect when the great Indian ruler came in; and thus, the reverence of one generation atoned for the party spirit and exaggerated accusations of another. In November, 1788, after some months of mental illness, the king was declared incapable of carrying on the business of the country. A fierce struggle commenced between parties, the object of the Whigs being to have the Prince of Wales made Regent should the royal illness continue, while the Tories were determined to abridge materially the power of the Regent. The recovery of the king put an end to the contest, and was the subject of great national rejoicing. Immediately after the king's recovery occurred the commencement of the French revolution, which arrested his attention, and that great movement found him the most determined of its enemies.

Pitt, in the management of foreign affairs, raised England from the depression into which she had sunk. One of the first

instances was the affair of Nootka Sound. Spain, raising the claim that to her belonged the whole western coast of America, had seized an English ship in Vancouver's Island and destroyed a settlement there. Upon this, Pitt, drawing closer his alliance with Prussia and Holland, and going so far as to increase largely the number of men in the navy, managed to exact from Spain a withdrawal of this claim and a restoration of English property.

Before the breaking out of the war with France, a dispute took place with Russia, the object being to prevent the conquest of Turkey by Catherine II., and, through the influence of Pitt in detaching the Czarina's allies from her, Turkey was saved. He expected to act upon the Russian empress as, in conjunction with Prussia, he had acted on Austria and Denmark. He demanded that a peace should be made upon the *status quo* before the war, and threatened to support his demand by arms. An increase of the fleet was ordered, but the premier was mistaken both in the temper of the English and in that of the empress. The isolated threat of one country standing without allies did not seem to be very terrible; to the people of England the danger of Russian aggression was of little importance. Pitt found it necessary to change his policy; he withdrew his threat, and was content to allow Russia to conclude a peace, by which she obtained the territory between the Bug and the Dnieper, and the fortress of Oczakow.

It was not in its political position only that England had developed with extraordinary rapidity after the American war. The condition of all those industrial arts which gave work to the lower orders was changed, and an energetic impulse given to the employment of industry.

Despite the constant complaints of those who were bent upon asserting the decline of the nation, the population had been gradually increasing ever since the revolution of 1688, and for the last thirty years, at the rate of about four hundred thousand a year.

The use of machinery made many things cheaper, and improved methods of husbandry prevented prices from rising, as they would otherwise have done; as a general rule, while the prices of luxuries decreased, the price of necessities rose.

Already the effects of the French revolution were felt in England. In March, 1790, a proposition for the relief of Protestant dissenters and for the abolition of test and corporation acts—which had been lost by only a very small majority the preceding year—was thrown out by overwhelming numbers. A bill for the reform of the representation met with a similar fate. Shortly after, the Parliament, having run its course of seven years, was dissolved.

The new parliament met November 25, 1790, when Mr. Addington was chosen Speaker.

There was no allusion to France in the king's speech, although the national mind was absorbed almost exclusively by conflicting sentiments about the revolution there. To some it appeared that a great enemy was perishing before their eyes of its own natural decay : to others a world of hope was seen in the vigorous life exhibited by a people downtrodden as the French lower classes were supposed to be ; to another party the hurried and irregular vehemence which had marked the changes in France seemed proof only of an anarchy shocking to all respect for form or antiquity, and sad evidence against the possibility of an orderly growth of reform.

"The French have shown themselves," said Burke, "the ablest architects of ruin that have hitherto existed in the world." "They have done their business for us, as rivals, in a way which twenty Ramillies or Blenheims could never have done."

The friends of the revolution in England determined to have a public dinner in Birmingham, to celebrate the taking of the Bastille in Paris. The dinner was chiefly planned by Dr. Priestley, a Unitarian minister. Hearing that the movement was unpopular, he attempted to postpone it ; some eighty persons met, however, and in the evening a fierce riot broke out against them. The riots continued from Thursday till Sunday. Dr. Priestley's house was destroyed, and much wanton mischief done. It was generally reported that the magistrates of the district, far from trying to check the rioters, had been seen urging them on.

Up to this point Pitt had shown no sign of yielding to the conservative feeling of the nation. He declared distinctly that

he intended to pursue a policy of neutrality, and to hold aloof from any interference in the domestic affairs of France. He even felt so certain of the continuance of peace that his budget, in the spring of 1792, was framed entirely on a peace footing; but the affairs that were taking place in France during the year, and the corresponding excitement in England, were gradually driving the minister to the opinion that his peaceful policy was no longer tenable.

On January 21, 1793, King Louis XVI. was executed in Paris. On the 28th the king sent a message to Parliament, in which he stated the indispensable necessity of a further augmentation of the forces by sea and land, and Mr. Pitt moved an address of thanks for the same, and to offer to his Majesty "our heartfelt condolence on the atrocious act lately perpetrated in Paris, which must be viewed by every nation in Europe as an outrage on religion, justice, and humanity, and as a striking and dreadful example of the effect of principles which lead to the violation of the most sacred duties, and are utterly subversive of the peace and order of all civil society."

Captain Cook's discoveries were now put to use, and convicts were sent to New South Wales and Norfolk Island. In the first years of the colony these wretched creatures were literally slaves, half-starved, with no hope of escape, the sea before them and a boundless waste behind.

On February 11, 1793, a message from the king was delivered to the two Houses of Parliament, in which it was stated "That the Assembly now exercising the powers of government in France have, without previous notice, directed acts of hostility to be committed against the persons and property of his Majesty's subjects, in breach of the law of nations, and of the most positive stipulations of treaty, and have since, on the most groundless pretensions, declared war against his Majesty and the United Provinces."

The opposition of Mr. Fox to the war with France, supported as he was by only a small band of his friends, was unremitting. He moved an amendment to the address on the king's message respecting the declaration of war, and was defeated without a division.

An army, principally of Hessian and Hanoverian troops, with two regiments of British guards, all under the Duke of York, the king's second son, was sent to Holland, and a fleet to the West Indies.

At the close of Parliament, June 21, 1793, there was an exulting notice in the king's speech of "the rapid and signal successes which, in an early period of the campaign, have attended the operations of the combined armies."

Revolutionary societies were formed in England and Scotland, and riots broke out, principally at Sheffield and Dundee, and the state of affairs were such that Pitt was induced to call out the militia; Parliament was summoned owing to the emergency, and the government was sustained in their action by a large majority.

The revolutionary army in France was successful, and established its rule unquestioned in France, and though the English maintained their naval character, defeating the French fleet off Brest, June 1, 1794, yet their military power was not raised by its events.

The most arbitrary rule was maintained at home, and nothing but the firmness of the English juries prevented the establishment of as complete a reign of terror in Great Britain as existed in France.

The campaign of 1795 had added Belgium, Holland, the left bank of the Rhine, part of Piedmont, Catalonia, and Navarre to the French dominions; the coalition began at once to fall to pieces. It was the pressure of England alone which had driven Spain and Holland into the war, and the Spanish government now awoke to its true interests. Spain saw herself aiding in the destruction of the only efficient rival to the English upon the sea, and thus in fact rendering certain her own maritime insignificance. The Spanish government was therefore willing to treat.

Holland, completely conquered, and with half its population preferring the French rule to that of the Prince of Orange, who had been forced upon the country, obtained peace by giving up its chief fortresses, paying a large indemnity, making an offensive alliance with France against England, and placing at

the disposal of France thirty ships of war. Many of the smaller states, both of Germany and Italy, declared themselves neutral. England was thus practically left without allies, with the single exception of Austria, which was only induced to continue its engagements by a subsidy of £4,500,000.

The burden of taxation had much to do with the overtures for peace which were set on foot in 1796. Nearly all classes had become weary of the war, and an opportunity of relief was offered by a change in the character of the French government. The Directory had held its position for a year, and seemed to give promise of such stability as would render negotiations possible, and the French Republic had this year reached a pitch of glory unequalled in the palmiest times of the monarchy. Lord Malmesbury therefore was despatched to Paris. But the French could not understand the position of a plenipotentiary who had not absolute powers to act, without reference to his own court, and taking umbrage at the many couriers who went to and from Paris, they declared their belief that the negotiation was not honestly conducted on the part of England, and finally De la Croix wrote suddenly to Malmesbury to leave Paris within eighteen hours. Thus closed the second effort on the part of Pitt to make peace.

The preparations in France for invading England could not be kept secret; fresh and constant efforts had been made to meet it. Fresh levies were made both for the army and the navy, and supplementary bodies of militia were raised. A new loan of £18,000,000 was called for, and in one hour and ten minutes from the time the loan was opened the whole amount was subscribed, and large sums were given to the government.

In April, 1797, a mutiny broke out in the fleet at Spithead. Upon the signal being given to weigh anchor, the crew of the *Queen Charlotte*, the flag-ship, instead of obeying orders, ran up the shrouds and gave three cheers, which were answered from the other ships. Two delegates from each ship then went on board the flag-ship, where orders were framed for the government of the fleet, and petitions drawn up to the House of Commons and the Lords of the Admiralty for a redress of grievances.

This alarming mutiny was at length suppressed by some judicious concessions and by the personal influence of Lord Howe. But, no sooner was the mutiny at Spithead quelled, than another, still more dangerous, broke out among the ships at Sheerness. One Richard Parker was the ringleader—a man, though illiterate, of quick intellect and determined will; and he was named Admiral Parker. The ships were moved from Sheerness to the Nore, to be out of the way of the batteries, the obnoxious officers were sent on shore, and the red flag hoisted. The demands of the mutineers were both more peremptory and more extensive than those made at Spithead, and embraced important changes in the articles of war. Twenty-four or twenty-five ships were included in the mutiny. The mutineers seized some store-ships, fired on some frigates that were about to put to sea, and had even the audacity to blockade the mouth of the Thames. Gloom and depression pervaded the metropolis, and the funds fell to an unheard of price.

All attempts at conciliation having failed, it became necessary to resort to stringent measures. Pitt brought in a bill for the better prevention and punishment of attempts to seduce seamen, and another forbidding all intercourse with the mutineers on the penalty of felony. Several ships and gun-boats were armed, batteries were erected on shore, the mutineers were prevented from landing to obtain fresh water or provisions, and all the buoys and beacons were removed, so as to render egress from the Thames impossible. A large number of the fleet had remained loyal, and the proposition to carry the fleet into a French port was rejected with horror. One by one the ships engaged in the mutiny began to drop off, and at last the *Sandwich*, Parker's flag-ship, ran in under the batteries and delivered up the ringleaders. Parker was hanged at the yard-arm of that vessel.

During the summer of 1797 Admiral De Winter was collecting a fleet of fifteen sail of the line and a number of frigates in the Texel, to convey a body of fifteen thousand men to Ireland, then on the point of rebellion. Admiral Duncan was refitting in Yarmouth Roads after the mutiny. In October the French put to sea, and were met by Duncan off Camperdown, who, after a desperate engagement which lasted four hours, captured eight

sail of the line, two frigates of fifty-six guns, and a couple of smaller vessels, October 11th. For this victory he was created Viscount Duncan of Camperdown, with a pension of £3,000 a year.

Owing to the loss of foreign customers for home manufactures the balance of trade was against the country, and many commercial houses were obliged to suspend payment, and a panic ensued.

In this crisis the Bank of England applied to the government for relief; a proclamation was issued forbidding payments in cash, and the suspension of specie payments lasted twenty years.

The French, to whom Spain and Holland were now subsidiary, determined upon an invasion of England on a grand scale, and large fleets, numbering more than seventy sail, were got ready at the Texel, Brest, and Cadiz. Commodore Nelson, while sailing with a convoy to Gibraltar, descried a Spanish fleet of twenty-seven sail of the line off Cape St. Vincent, and hastened to notify Admiral Jervis, who was cruising with fifteen sail of the line. Nelson accepted an invitation to hoist his pennant on board the *Captain*, seventy-four guns, and the hostile fleets came in sight at daybreak on February 24th. The Spaniards were not only superior in number but also in the size of their ships, among which was the *Santissima Trinidad*, of one hundred and thirty-six guns on four decks, supposed to be the largest man-of-war in the world. But the unseamanlike way in which their ships were handled caused the English to disregard the disparity of force. Jervis cut off nine of their ships before they could form their line of battle, and eight of them took to flight.

Of their remaining ships, Nelson, supported by Captain Trowbridge on the *Culloden*, engaged no fewer than six, namely, the *Santissima Trinidad*, the *San Josef*, and the *Salvador del Mondo*, each of one hundred and twelve guns, and three seventy-fours. After the action had lasted an hour Nelson was reinforced by the *Blenheim* and the *Excellent*.

When Nelson's ship was nearly disabled, and his ammunition almost expended, he boarded and took the *San Josef* and then the *San Nicholas*, he himself leading the way, exclaiming,

“Westminster Abbey or victory.” The Spanish admiral declined renewing the fight, and escaped with the remainder of his fleet. For this victory Sir John Jervis was created Earl St. Vincent, with a pension of £3,000 a year. Nelson was promoted to Rear Admiral and made a Knight Commander of the Bath.

The English, in turn, were not backward in offensive operations, which, however, did not prove very successful. In May, 1798, Havre was ineffectually bombarded by Sir Richard Strahan, and in the same month an expedition under Sir Home Popham was undertaken against Ostend. General Coote landed with one thousand men and destroyed the basin, gates, and sluices of the Bruges Canal, in order to interrupt the navigation between France and Flanders. But the surf did not permit him to return to the ships, and on the following morning they were surrounded by several columns of the enemy, and being outnumbered were obliged to surrender.

At the same time Bonaparte sailed from Toulon with thirteen ships of the line, and transports conveying twenty thousand men, on his Egyptian expedition, accompanied by some generals of renown and a body of *saracens*. It was undertaken from a mere desire of spoliation and aggrandizement, for the French had not a shadow of a grievance to allege against the Porte. On the way, Malta, then governed by a Grand Master, was surprised and seized with as little pretence. At the beginning of July the French landed four thousand men near Alexandria and captured that city after a slight resistance, as well as Aboukir and Rosetta, which gave them the command of one of the mouths of the Nile. The French committed an indiscriminate massacre of men, women, and children, which lasted four hours. They then crossed the desert, fought the battle of the Pyramids, and seized Cairo, the capital of Egypt.

Meanwhile Nelson had been vainly looking out for the French fleet, and it was not till August 1st that he discovered their transports in the harbor of Alexandria. Their men-of-war were anchored in the Bay of Aboukir, as close as possible to the shore. Nevertheless, Nelson determined to get inside of them with some of his vessels, a manœuvre for which

they were not prepared, and though the *Culloden* grounded in the attempt, Nelson persevered. Thus a great part of the enemy's fleet was placed between two fires. The battle began at six in the evening. By eight o'clock four of the French van had struck, but the conflict raged in the centre. Between nine and ten o'clock *L'Orient*, the French admiral's ship, having caught fire, blew up with a terrible explosion, which was followed by a deep silence of several minutes. The battle was then renewed and continued through the night with only an hour's pause. Next day Rear Admiral Villeneuve escaped with four ships. The following morning the only French ships remaining uncaptured or undestroyed were the *Timoléon* and the *Tonnant*, when the former was set on fire and abandoned by her crew and the latter surrendered. Such was the battle of the Nile. Soon after the islands of Minorca and Gozo fell into the hands of the British.

The news of Nelson's victory was received with the greatest demonstrations of joy, not only in England, but through a great part of Europe. He was created Baron Nelson of the Nile, and a pension of £2,000 a year was granted him.

In consequence of the battle of the Nile an alliance was formed between England, Russia, and the Porte, and early in 1799 hostilities were recommenced between Austria and France. A joint expedition was agreed upon for the recovery of Holland, which was to be undertaken with thirty thousand British troops under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, and seventeen thousand Russians.

Several actions took place, attended with success and considerable loss on both sides; but owing to the advancing season, and finding the army reduced by ten thousand men, the British commanding general retired to a fortified position at the Zype, where he had to capitulate, with the understanding that he should restore the Helder in the same state as before its capture, together with eight thousand French and Dutch prisoners, and that the allied army should re-embark without molestation before the end of November.

A measure was now in agitation in England for consolidating the power and integrity of the empire by a union with Ireland.

That country had been for some years in a very disturbed state.

The examples of America and France had inspired many with the idea of establishing an independent republic; and in 1791 was formed the Society of United Irishmen, consisting mostly of Protestants, whose principles would have led to that result. Its projector was a barrister named Wolfe Tone, who, having become secretary of the committee for managing the affairs of the Irish Roman Catholics, effected an alliance between the two parties. The ramifications of this society extended over Ireland.

Wolfe Tone having been detected in a treasonable correspondence with the French, was obliged to fly to America, whence he soon afterward crossed back again to France, and employed himself in forwarding the projected invasion in 1796-97.

Notwithstanding the frustration of these expeditions the Irish malcontents did not abandon their plan of an insurrection. One of their principal leaders was Lord Edward Fitzgerald, a brother of the Duke of Leinster's, and he was seconded by O'Connor, Napper Tandy, Thomas Addis, Emmet, Bond, and others; but the conspiracy was divulged by one Reynolds, and the principal conspirators were arrested, March 12, 1798. After this discovery martial law was proclaimed in Ireland, and many acts of cruelty took place on both sides.

The union of England and Ireland had been for many years discussed, as a speculative question, but these disturbances now forced it upon the serious attention of the government.

The king, in his speech on the opening of Parliament, January 22, 1800, alluded to the subject, and a few days afterward Pitt brought forward a series of resolutions, which were carried after considerable debate. On February 18th the union was voted on in the Irish Parliament in Dublin. Great opposition was made to the measure, and the Irish Home Parliament party paid large sums of money for a single vote in the House, but the union was carried by a majority of forty-six. The resolution was then sent to England.

A bill embodying these resolutions passed both Houses in

May, and on August 2d received the royal assent, the union to take effect on January 1, 1801.

The main provisions were that one hundred Irish members should be added to the English House of Commons, and thirty-two Irish Peers to the House of Lords—four spiritual and twenty-eight temporal—whose seats were to be held for life.

A council was held, consisting of the most eminent dignitaries of Church and state, including the royal princes, by which proclamations were issued for making the necessary changes in the king's title, the national arms, and the liturgy.

The only thing worth noting on this occasion is that the title of "King of France" was dropped, and the *fleurs-de-lis* expunged from the royal arms.

During the debates on the union the Irish Catholics had remained almost entirely neutral; what little feeling they displayed was in its favor. This is attributable to their hatred of the Orangemen, the warmest opponents of the union, as well as to the expectation that their demands would be more favorably considered in a united Parliament than by a separate Irish Legislature, and which Pitt led them to expect.

On May 15, 1800, the king was shot at in his box at Drury Lane Theatre. The assassin, when apprehended, was found to be a lunatic named James Hatfield, and the attempt was not in any way connected with politics.

The first United Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland met February 2, 1801. In his speech the king expressed satisfaction at availing himself of the advice and assistance of the Parliament of the United Kingdom at a crisis so important. "This memorable era, distinguished by the accomplishment of a measure calculated to augment and consolidate the strength and resources of the empire"—"this happy union which, by the blessing of Providence, has now been effected."

There had long been a want of harmony among the members of the Cabinet with regard to the war, but there had now arisen an even more formidable question.

The union had been effected by much bribery in money, titles, and places; these promises had all been fulfilled, and the tacit support, or at least neutrality, of the Irish Roman Catho-

lies had been secured by an understood promise that their claims should be considered under the new arrangement, and that a bill for their relief should be brought before Parliament.

Great opposition was shown to the measure in the Cabinet, but Pitt was determined to fulfill his promise. The king told Dundas that he had heard such a measure was in contemplation, and that he should hold any one who supported it his personal enemy, on which Pitt determined to resign unless he was allowed to fulfill his promises to the Irish. The king wrote to him, urging him to remain in office, and to drop the measure; but Pitt was determined, and the king was forced to accept his resignation. Addington, the Speaker of the House of Commons, was sent for by the king, and instructed to form a ministry, a duty which, by the advice of Pitt, he accepted.

The shock of parting with a minister he had so long trusted brought on a renewal of the king's insanity, and measures were taken for a regency, under the same restrictions that Pitt had before insisted upon. George was at this time so popular that even the opposition treated him in his illness with every consideration. On March 7th the king was recovered in mind as well as in body, and the people made the most earnest demonstrations of their joy and attachment.

The threatening nature of the northern league now demanded serious attention. In March, 1801, the King of Prussia had notified the Hanoverian government of his accession to it, and the closing of the mouths of the Elbe, the Weser, and the Ems, and demanded immediate possession of Hanover. A short time before Hamburg had been seized in the name of the King of Denmark.

Remonstrances having failed, a fleet of eighteen sail of the line, with frigates, etc., were despatched to Denmark under command of Sir Hyde Parker, with Nelson nominally his second, but in reality the commander.

The Danish navy itself was greatly superior to the force despatched against it, and Nelson pressed the necessity of hastening operations before the breaking up of the ice should enable the Russians to come to the assistance of the Danes.

Between Copenhagen and the sand-bank which defends its

approach, the Danes had moored floating batteries mounting seventy guns, and thirteen men-of-war were also posted before the town. Nelson led on with the greater part of the fleet, and anchored off Draco Point, while Sir Hyde Parker, with the remainder, menaced the crown batteries. Two of Nelson's ships grounded going in, so that he could not extend his line. The action was hot, and Parker hoisted the signal to desist, but Nelson would not see it, and, hoisting his own for closer action, ordered it to be nailed to the mast (April 2, 1801).

The Danes fought with desperate valor, but by half-past three their ships had all struck, though it was impossible to carry them off on account of the batteries. Nelson now sent a note on shore, addressed "To the brothers of Englishmen, the Danes," in which he remarked, that if he could effect a reconciliation between the two countries, he should consider it the greatest victory he had ever gained. Subsequently he had an audience of Christian VII, the effect of which was that Denmark was detached from the league.

Foiled in their northern projects, the French renewed the threat of an invasion. Camps were formed at Ostend, Dunkirk, Brest, and St. Malo, but the main force was assembled at Boulogne. It was rumored that an immense raft, to be impelled by mechanical power, and capable of conveying an army, was to be constructed, but no such machine appears to have been begun.

However chimerical such a project might be, precautions against it were adopted in England.

Lord Nelson, in command of a channel squadron, sent a few vessels into Boulogne, which succeeded in destroying two floating batteries, and two gun-boats. An attempt to cut out the flotilla in that harbor failed.

Ever since the accession of Mr. Addington to power, negotiations for a peace had been attempted with France.

The eyes of the English ministry were still directed toward Egypt, from which, on account of the East India possessions, as well as other reasons, it was highly desirable the French should be expelled. An army of eighteen thousand men, under command of Sir Ralph Abercrombie, was despatched, and in

March, 1801, landed in Aboukir Bay. The French force had been greatly underrated. In spite of the English cruisers, they had managed to procure reinforcements; their army numbered over thirty-two thousand men, with one thousand pieces of artillery, and some excellent cavalry, while the English were deficient in both.

The English took Aboukir on March 18th. Ménou, the French commander-in-chief, with a large force advancing from Cairo, attempted to surprise the English camp, and after a severe struggle of over seven hours he was obliged to retire with the loss of four thousand men. The English lost fifteen hundred, and among them was Sir Ralph Abercrombie.

General Hutchinson, on whom the command now devolved, being reinforced by some Turks, successfully captured Rosetta, El Aft, and Cairo; the last surrendered June 24, 1801. It was agreed that the garrison, consisting of about thirteen thousand French, should be conveyed to France at the expense of the allied powers. Ménou still held out at Alexandria. Henderson, being reinforced by seven thousand Sepoys from India, laid siege to that city, and on August 22d it surrendered, and the French army obtained the same terms as that of Cairo.

On October 1, 1801, the preliminaries of peace were signed, and it cost some time and much anxious negotiations before its final ratification. On March 27, 1802, peace was concluded by the treaty of Amiens. Bonaparte, while intending to renew the war sooner or later, meant to keep the occasion in his own hands. He never ceased from his course of aggression, treating England's remonstrances with contempt. He also took upon himself to interfere with the internal affairs of England, and demanded the suppression of papers hostile to him, and the dismissal of the emigrants from that country. Such conduct was rapidly changing the feeling in England, and rendering hostilities inevitable. On May 18, 1803, war was declared against France, upon which all the English in France, numbering over twelve thousand, were, by a single decree, taken prisoners, and kept confined until the close of the war.

The government showed creditable activity. The militia, to the number of seventy thousand, were embodied; an army of

reserve, fifty thousand strong, was raised by ballot, to serve four years, and by a bill, known as the Military Service Bill, the enrolment as volunteers of all men between the ages of seventeen and fifty-five was provided for. The number of these volunteers speedily rose beyond three hundred thousand.

As the standing army was kept at one hundred and twenty thousand, there must have been, in all, upward of five hundred thousand armed men for the purpose of defence.

Addington resigned his office April 26, 1804, and in May Pitt was induced to form a cabinet. The change of ministry implied a complete change of policy.

As Addington's ministry had been from the first intended as a peace ministry, so the accession of Pitt to office implied a vigorous prosecution of the war.

England declared war against Spain in December, because of the assistance she was rendering France.

England was now fighting single-handed; the arrival of Bonaparte was daily expected in England, and all Europe seemed to hold aloof from an alliance. But in the East the British arms had been victorious, and the war was this year brought to a triumphant conclusion in India under Sir Arthur Wellesley.

Nelson had been looking for the French fleet. He was disappointed in the Mediterranean; he then sailed for the West Indies with ten sail of the line, but returned to England without being fortunate enough to discover them, and being in a bad state of health, he struck his flag at Spithead, and retired to his seat at Merton.

Sir Robert Calder was more fortunate. On July 22, 1805, he fell in with the enemy some distance off Cape Finisterre, and, though much inferior in force, an action ensued, in which two of the Spanish ships were taken. Admiral Villeneuve ultimately got into Cadiz, where he found his fleet to number thirty-five sail of the line. Collingwood, who was watching that port, sent the intelligence to Nelson. He immediately volunteered his services to the Admiralty, which was gladly accepted, and on September 15th he was again on board the *Victory*, accompanied by the *Ajax* and *Thunderer*. On the

29th he arrived at Cadiz and joined Collingwood, but his arrival was kept secret from the enemy.

On October 19th, the want of provisions obliged the enemy to leave Cadiz, and the English fleet immediately gave chase, the course being toward the Straits of Gibraltar. It was not till the 21st that Nelson fell in with them off Cape Trafalgar.

† The enemy tacked, in order to be able, if necessary, to run back to Cadiz, when Nelson steered a little more to the north, and cut them off.

Nelson then ran up to his masthead his last signal—“*England expects every man to do his duty*”—which was greeted with three cheers from every ship. Nelson led the weather line in the *Victory*, but the line under Collingwood was the first to get into action. The British fleet comprised twenty-seven sail of the line and four frigates, with two thousand one hundred and forty-eight guns. The combined French and Spanish fleets numbered thirty-three sail of the line and five frigates, with two thousand six hundred and twenty-six guns. The action had lasted about half an hour when Nelson was struck by a musket-ball, and fell on the deck mortally wounded. Before he died he had the satisfaction to hear from Captain Hardy that he had gained a complete victory, nineteen of the enemy's ships having struck their colors and one blew up. The prisoners taken, including the troops on board, amounted to about twelve thousand men, October 21, 1805.

William Pitt had long been suffering from disease, during which he was cheered for a moment by the glory of Trafalgar, dimmed though it was by the death of Nelson. The disasters of Ulm and Austerlitz, which events, together with the dissolution by the treaty of Presburg, of the coalition he had so laboriously established, went far to render fatal the disease which held him, and to which he yielded January 23, 1806.

His death was followed by a change of the Cabinet, Lord Grenville succeeding as First Lord of the Treasury.

On February 3, 1807, a bill passed Parliament prohibiting slave-trading, but as the punishments were only pecuniary, a new bill was required, which was introduced by Mr. Brougham in 1811, making slave-trading a felony.

On the 18th of March, 1807, Lord Grenville's ministry was dismissed and a new administration formed, with the Duke of Portland as First Lord of the Treasury, George Canning Foreign Secretary, Lord Castlereagh Secretary at War and Colonies, Spencer Percival Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Lord Eldon Chancellor in place of Lord Erskine. A "no popery" cry was raised, in which Wilberforce and the evangelical party loudly joined; the ministers took advantage of it to dissolve Parliament, though it had been returned only a few months, and the elections secured them a large majority.

The military expeditions arranged by the Grenville ministry had resulted unfortunately in all quarters. Sir John Duckworth was despatched with a squadron to bring the Turks to reason; he succeeded in passing the Dardanelles, and appeared before Constantinople in February, 1807, but the Turks amused him with negotiations until they had put their city in a position of defence, and Duckworth made a disgraceful retreat, for which he was afterward brought to a court-martial.

Meanwhile the Russians, exhausted in the field, and receiving no assistance from England, concluded with France the peace of Tilsit, July 7, 1807, to which Prussia afterward acceded. Both these countries agreed to shut their ports against the English. When, too late, Canning sent an envoy to conciliate the Emperor Alexander, he could not even obtain an audience, and returned with the conviction that the emperor, by a secret article of the treaty, had placed not only his own fleet, but also those of Sweden and Denmark at the disposal of Napoleon. It was no time for hesitation. Denmark commanded the entrance of the Baltic; a large fleet was lying in her harbors; the north of Germany was full of French troops; and, however friendly might be the disposition of the Danes, it was evident that their movements would depend on the will of Napoleon. A powerful armament, consisting of twenty-five sail of the line, forty frigates and other small vessels, and three hundred and seventy-seven transports, carrying twenty-seven thousand troops, was secretly and promptly fitted out, and sailed from Yarmouth Roads, July 27, 1807, under the command of Admiral Gambier; Lord Cathcart was at the head of the army, under whom served Sir Arthur

Wellesley, an officer who had greatly distinguished himself in India.

On August 9th the expedition was safely anchored in the Roads of Elsinore. Negotiations were opened for the delivery of the Danish fleet under the solemn promise that it should be restored on the conclusion of the peace with France. The proposal being indignantly rejected by the crown prince, preparations were made to enforce it. The fleet proceeded to Copenhagen, the troops were landed and batteries constructed, and on September 2d a bombardment commenced both by sea and land. On the 5th the Danish commander surrendered, and on the 8th the English troops took possession of Copenhagen. On October 20th the whole Danish fleet was prepared for sea and taken to England, together with an immense quantity of naval stores and three thousand pieces of artillery. The island of Heligoland was also captured, and served as a depot for English goods to be smuggled into the continent.

The rage of Napoleon at this intelligence was terrific. The Danes declared war against England, the consequence of which was the capture of the Danish West India Islands of St. Thomas, St. John's, and St. Croix in December.

The King of Portugal, having refused to enforce the Berlin decree against England, Napoleon determined to attack that country. For that purpose, on October 27th, he entered into a treaty with Spain, which was to have a portion of Portugal, and before the treaty was signed he despatched an army of thirty thousand men, under Junot, across the Bidassoa, which entered Lisbon November 30th.

The Prince Regent, Dom Pedro, with many of his nobility and fifteen thousand of his subjects, had sailed the day previously for the Brazils, and Napoleon proclaimed that the house of Braganza had ceased to reign. No sooner was Napoleon in possession of Portugal than, with the help of Godoy, the Prime Minister of Spain, he treacherously turned his arms against that country. The imbecile Charles IV. was decoyed into Bayonne, where a renunciation of the Spanish throne in favor of Napoleon was extorted from him in consideration of the palace and domains of Navarre, and a pension of four hundred thousand

frances; it was then declared that the Spanish Bourbons had ceased to reign.

Joseph Bonaparte, much against his will, was compelled to exchange the crown of Naples for that of Spain, while the former was bestowed upon Napoleon's brother-in-law, Murat.

The Spaniards rose in insurrection, and established at Seville a "Supreme Junta," and declared Ferdinand king.

General Castanos, who commanded the Spanish army of Andalusia, applied to Sir Hew Dalrymple, commandant of Gibraltar, with a view to obtain assistance from England. Collingwood carried his fleet into Cadiz, and lent the Spaniards what assistance he could in ammunition and stores.

At length the British government undertook to aid the Spaniards with some troops. On July 12, 1808, Sir Arthur Wellesley sailed from Cork for the Peninsula with about twelve thousand men, and on August 1st landed at Figueira, where he was reinforced by about four thousand men from Cadiz. On the 21st was fought the battle of Vimeira, in which the French were completely defeated. This was the prelude to the celebrated Peninsula wars, where Wellesley continued, with slight intermissions, until 1814, when he had cleared Portugal and Spain of the invaders.

When the session of Parliament was closed on June 21st, 1809, events in Germany justified the assertion in a speech from the throne, that the resistance in Spain against the usurpation and tyranny of the French government had awakened in other nations of Europe a determination to resist, by a new effort, the continued and increasing encroachments on their safety and independence.

In order to support the Austrian struggle against France, the English ministry resolved to divert the French arms by an expedition to the Scheldt, particularly as Napoleon was attempting to convert Antwerp and Flushing into great naval depots.

On July 25, 1809, a large armament sailed from Portsmouth, consisting of thirty-seven sail of the line, and an army of forty thousand men, but under incompetent leaders—the Earl of Chatham and Rear Admiral Strahan. On July 30th the troops were landed on the Isle of Walcheren, where time was lost in

reducing Flushing, during which the Scheldt had been strongly fortified and forty thousand men thrown into Antwerp. The enterprise was then abandoned as impracticable, and the expedition returned home, leaving sixteen thousand men in possession of the Isle of Walcheren. These, however, began rapidly to disappear, from the effects of the fever and ague, common to that unhealthy climate, and in a short time half the force was in hospital. After the middle of November it was evacuated, the harbor, arsenal, and magazines of Flushing having been destroyed. The remainder of the troops returned to England. Such was the end of an expedition costing the country £20,000,000.

On October 25, 1809, was celebrated "the Jubilee," the fiftieth anniversary of his majesty's accession to the throne. There was a feeling of attachment to their old sovereign, pity for his growing infirmities, and a sympathy with his sturdy hatred to Napoleon and French domination. One thing the people dreaded, that his reign should come to an end; that the example of the domestic virtues that prevailed at Windsor should be succeeded by the license of Carlton House.

In November, 1810, the king, who had never thoroughly recovered from the effects of the failure of the Walcheren expedition and the disgrace of Lord Chatham and the Duke of York, was still further shaken by the death of his daughter, the Princess Amelia, and before long it appeared that he had become hopelessly insane. After several prorogations of Parliament, it was resolved, on December 20, 1810, to supply the existing defect in the organization of government.

Parliament having been opened by a commission under the great seal, the Regency Bill was passed, February 5, 1811. The reign of George III. had virtually closed on that day.

The Regency of George, Prince of Wales.—A.D. 1811-1820.

THE Prince of Wales took the oath of office on February 6, 1811, before a Privy Council assembled at Carlton House, and immediately declared his intention of retaining Mr. Perceval and his cabinet in office, who were resolved to continue the war.

In the Peninsula the Spaniards had been beaten at every point, and the Junta was obliged to take refuge in Cadiz, which was now invested by a French army. A British force of about six thousand men had been thrown into the place to assist in its defence, and the English fleet kept open the communications by sea.

After the peace with Austria, Napoleon was enabled to march large reinforcements into Spain, including some of his best troops. Perceval abandoned all hope of preserving a hold on the Peninsula in the face of these new efforts, and threw on Wellesley, who had been raised to the peerage as Lord Wellington after his victory at Talavera, the responsibility of resolving to remain there.

By the addition of Portuguese troops, who had been trained under British officers, Wellington's army now numbered fifty thousand men; and though his inferiority in force had compelled him to look on while Massena reduced the frontier fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo and Almeida, he inflicted on him a heavy check at the heights of Busaco, and finally fell back, in October, 1810, on three lines of defence which he had secretly constructed at Torres Vedras, along a chain of mountain heights crowned with redoubts and bristling with cannon.

The position was impregnable, and Massena, after a long and fruitless attempt, was obliged to fall back through a wasted country, where his privations were terrible, and where he lost a large number of his men from want and fatigue. An attempt of Wellington to retake Badajoz failed, by the co-operation of the army of the south, under Marshal Soult, with that of the north, under Marshal Marmont.

Not only was the French hold on Spain too strong to be shaken by the force at Wellington's command, but the continental system of Napoleon was beginning to involve England in dangers which he was far from having foreseen.

His efforts to exclude English manufactures from the continent had been foiled by the rise of the vast system of contraband trade, and by the evasions in the Russian and Prussian ports.

During the year 1811, the French had been deprived of all

their possessions in the East and West Indies. The Dutch had also lost most of their East Indian settlements, and the following year the remainder were reduced.

On the continent, however, the French empire was extending. Napoleon, having deposed his brother Louis, annexed Holland to France, the German coast to Hamburg being afterward added. The French empire, therefore, might be said to extend from Naples to the frontiers of Denmark, embracing a population of eighty millions.

On May 3, 1811, Wellington met Massena at Fuentes de Orons, and the French were beaten with great loss. On the 15th a battle was fought between Marshal Beresford and Soult at Badajoz, and after six hours' hard fighting the English were victorious.

The beginning of 1812 was marked by some changes in the Cabinet, and on May 11, 1812, Mr. Perceval was assassinated by a lunatic named Bellingham, whose petition he had rejected.

Upon this event all the ministers tendered their resignation, and an attempt was made to construct a Whig cabinet, but it failed. Lord Liverpool now became Premier, Lord Castlereagh Foreign Secretary, and Mr. Vansittart Chancellor of the Exchequer. The financial measures of Mr. Perceval were adopted, and it was resolved to push the war with vigor.

Wellington opened the campaign of 1812 with the capture of Ciudad Rodrigo, January 19th, for which he was created an earl, with an annuity of £2,000. On June 27th a message was sent to Parliament from the Prince Regent on the disturbed state of the country. In Lancashire and in parts of Cheshire and the West Riding of Yorkshire there was an organized system of conspiracy for the destruction of machinery, owing to the stagnation of trade and the improvements in machinery requiring fewer hands. A law was immediately passed making such destruction a capital crime. Many rioters were convicted and sixteen hanged, and gradually the disturbances ceased.

In this year the Americans displayed an unfriendly feeling toward England. They were incensed at her exercise of the right of search, which had been forced upon her by the Berlin decree, and they insisted upon the doctrine that the neutral flag

makes free goods, and it became evident that war must result, unless that decree was repealed. But England was in confusion owing to the assassination of the Prime Minister, and it was not until the middle of June, when war had already been declared, that Brougham's motion for the withdrawal of the order was carried. The concessions, awkwardly made in the face of American threats, came too late. The Americans had already made up their minds and planned an invasion of Canada.

Proclamations were issued inviting the Canadians to throw off the British yoke; but they remained faithful.

It was a war without great events. The attempts of the Americans upon Canada failed. Here and there a small success attended the British arms, and the deep anger of the Americans was the troublesome blockade of their coast, and the employment of the savage Indian tribes as allies by the English. But if fairly successful on land, the British, to their great astonishment, were thoroughly worsted at sea. Ship after ship was taken by the American frigates. Not till the fact was recognized that the classifications of the two navies were wholly different, and that an American frigate was, in tonnage and weight of metal, a match for a British fifty-gun ship, were these disasters brought to an end. It was an additional blow to the pride of England that the sailors by whom her ships were defeated, were largely drawn from her own people. From the wretchedness prevailing in England, from high taxes, commercial difficulties, and the severe laws of impressment, men fled for refuge to America, and it is said that as many as sixteen thousand Englishmen were serving on board the American fleet.

The war was so causeless and so prejudicial to the success of the allies in Europe, that the Emperor of Russia attempted, in 1813, to bring it to a close by mediation. Though his offer was declined, a negotiation was entered into at Ghent, which ultimately proved successful; but before the negotiators advanced far in their labors, the war threatened to assume a more serious character.

A considerable number of British troops were embarked for America, and a combined attack by land and water was made

on Washington. The success of the expedition was complete, and was stained by the destruction of all public property.

It is said the government ordered it as a retaliation for the barbarities of the Americans on the Canadian frontier.

A peremptory demand on the part of France to the other powers for the entire cessation of intercourse with England brought the quarrel to a head, and preparations were made on all sides for a gigantic struggle.

The best of the French soldiers were drawn from Spain to the frontier of Poland, and Wellington profited by the withdrawal to throw off his system of defence, and to assume an attitude of attack.

Napoleon then undertook his disastrous expedition into Russia. The burning of Moscow, September 15, 1812, forced him to retreat, during which the greater part of his vast army was annihilated either by the inclemency of the weather, or the sword of the enemy, and during the summer a treaty was concluded between England, Russia, and Sweden.

The French reverses not only prevented Napoleon from sending re-enforcements into Spain, but also obliged him to recall Marshal Soult and twenty thousand men from that country, in order to oppose the advance of the Russians, and the Spanish government made Lord Wellington Commander-in-chief of the Spanish forces. In May, 1813, he entered Spain with three divisions, the centre being led by himself; the French retreated before him, until they took up a strong position in front of the town of Vittoria, where they were attacked and beaten, June 21, 1813. Losing the whole of their artillery, baggage, and ammunition, they fled in the greatest disorder to Pampluna.

Napoleon now sent Soult, with the title of "Lieutenant of the Emperor," to reorganize the defeated army and defend the frontiers of France. On four consecutive days (27th to 30th July) bloody and persevering attacks were made upon the allied lines; but they were repulsed, and on the 31st Soult was in full retreat for France. These engagements were called the "Battles of the Pyrenees."

On August 31st St. Sebastian was carried by assault, but with terrible loss. Before the middle of November all the

allied army was on French territory. Wellington had issued a proclamation containing the strictest injunctions not to molest the peaceable inhabitants, which the Spaniards could not be brought to obey, and at last he was obliged to send most of them back over the frontier. The peasants of the south of France, oppressed by the conscription, welcomed the English as deliverers.

Soult then retired to his entrenched camp at Bayonne, and the allies went for a few weeks into winter quarters.

The whole continent was now in arms against Napoleon; the news of Wellington's glorious campaign in the Peninsula stimulated the Germans to resistance. Prussia and Russia contracted an alliance, offensive and defensive, and they were joined by Great Britain, June 14, 1813.

By the most unsparing conscription, Napoleon had raised seven hundred thousand men, half of whom were despatched into Germany, but they were raw recruits, much inferior to those with which he had won his early victories. He gained in May the battles of Lutzen and Bautzen, but they led to little result. The French occupied Leipsic and Dresden, when an armistice was agreed upon from June 5th to August 10th. Napoleon refused to give up his conquests beyond the Rhine; and at the conclusion of the armistice Austria joined the coalition against him. England supplied the Prussians, Hanoverians, and Swedes, with money and stores. Then came war in as tremendous a form as the art of destruction ever assumed.

The battles of Dresden, Gross Beeren, Dennewitz, and the Katzbach were fought, in all of which the French were defeated, and, finally, the crowning battle of Leipsic, where Napoleon was completely overthrown, and compelled to a retreat as disastrous as that from Moscow. Crossing the Rhine with less than a quarter of the enormous army he had collected in Germany, he reached Paris November 9th, though beaten, still arrogant and presumptuous.

In February, 1814, Wellington again took the field, and Soult retired before him across the Gave d'Oléron. On the 27th Soult was defeated at Orthez with great loss, and Wellington pushed on to the Adour, directing Sir John Hope to invest

Bayonne, and Marshal Beresford to occupy Bordeaux, where, on his arrival, the mayor and citizens proclaimed Louis XVIII. of their own accord—for Wellington studiously avoided all interference in favor of the Bourbons.

Soult now retreated upon Toulouse; Wellington, who reached that city March 27th, found him posted on the right bank of the broad and rapid Garonne. It was April 9th before the British army could be conveyed to the other side.

The last battle was fought between Wellington and Soult on April 10th, near Toulouse. It was a battle in which two great commanders put forth all their strength against each other with no adequate results for the loss of eight thousand men. It was a useless battle, for the war was already ended; the Senate had declared that Napoleon had forfeited the throne; a Provisional Government had been formed; the Emperor of the French had abdicated on the 4th; the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia had been in Paris four days.

On April 23, 1814, a convention between the Count d'Artois and the allied powers was signed at Paris, by which it was stipulated that all hostilities should cease, and that the foreign armies should evacuate the French territory. A congress to be held at Vienna was to confirm its conditions and to reorganize Europe.

There were three months of public joy in England, such as never had been witnessed. The allied sovereigns were invited to visit the Prince Regent in England; the Emperor of Austria declined, but the Czar and the King of Prussia accepted the invitation, and were received with great pomp and enthusiasm.

The congress at Vienna, at first appointed for August, had been postponed to September, and thither, after their visit to England, the monarchs themselves and the ministers who represented the various countries at once repaired. The interests of England were intrusted to Lord Castlereagh, a man of considerable firmness, but of mediocre ability, without accurate knowledge or broad views of the politics of Europe, and deficient in the conciliatory deportment so necessary for a successful diplomatist.

The time of the congress was principally occupied with the

personal and peculiar interest of each sovereign, instead of attempting a settlement of Europe in accordance with the growing change of ideas, the outgrowth and effect of the revolution.

Before the conclusion of those questions Castlereagh had been compelled, by the meeting of Parliament, to return to England, and the Duke of Wellington had taken his place at Vienna. His work there was not completed when the news arrived that Napoleon had escaped from Elba, and the duke was wanted to take command of the allied army in Belgium.

The renewal of the coming danger produced a temporary harmony among the negotiators; the chief questions were rapidly settled, and a joint proclamation was issued by the eight powers which had signed the Peace of Paris, declaring Napoleon the common enemy of Europe. The congress continued its sittings, but the military preparations for the time absorbed all attention.

The treaty of peace and amity between the United States and Great Britain was signed at Ghent on December 24, 1814, but previous to that news having reached America the battle of New Orleans was fought, January 16, 1815. General Pakenham, commanding the British, was killed. The English loss was two thousand killed, wounded, and prisoners. An armistice of two days was agreed upon for the purpose of burying the dead. On January 18th the retreat of the British army commenced, and was so safely effected that the troops re-embarked on the night of the 27th, with all the artillery and stores except eight heavy guns.

An insignificant triumph in the capture of Fort Boyer, near Mobile, closed their military operations, February 12, 1815. The news of the conclusion of peace at Ghent arrived next day.

On April 6th the Prince Regent sent a message to the two Houses of Parliament to the effect that the events which had recently occurred in France had induced His Royal Highness to give directions for the augmentation of the land and sea forces.

It was also announced that the Prince Regent had lost no time in entering into communication with the allied powers for the purpose of forming such a concert as might most effectually provide for the general and permanent security of Europe.

The treaty of Vienna of March 23d had bound the allied powers to make war together upon Napoleon, and to conclude no separate peace with him.

The resistance in the British Parliament to engage in this war was very feeble. A motion for an address, praying the crown not to involve the country in a war, upon the ground of excluding a particular person from the government of France, was rejected by a vote of two hundred and seventy-three against seventy-two.

The enormous sums demanded by the government were voted almost without inquiry. Napoleon, having appointed a Provisional Government to act in concert with the Chambers, left Paris on the evening of June 11, 1815. On the 15th he had crossed the frontier, and was at the head of one hundred and twenty-two thousand men at Charleroi, in the Netherlands, and on the 18th was fought the decisive battle of Waterloo, which again sent Napoleon from his throne. The loss in this great battle was very heavy on all sides; that of England is put down at thirteen thousand, Prussia, seven thousand, and France thirty thousand men.

The advance of the allies into France was unchecked, and on the 7th of July Paris was again occupied. The march through the country exhibited the different feelings by which they were actuated; while Blücher and the Prussians thought of nothing but vengeance, Wellington insisted upon regarding France as a friendly country to which he was restoring its legitimate sovereign. He succeeded in restraining his violent colleague, who wished to put Napoleon to death, to lay contributions on Paris, and to blow up the bridge of Jena, over the Seine, the name of which he considered an insult to Prussia.

Wellington had no instructions as regards Napoleon; he therefore allowed him to follow his own course.

The emperor embarked on an English frigate, the *Bellerophon*, intending to claim the hospitality of England; but the dread of his name and ambition, and the proved danger of allowing him to remain in Europe, prevented the British government from entertaining any such ideas, and Napoleon was sent to end his days as a prisoner at St. Helena.

On November 20, 1815, a treaty was signed between France on the one part, and Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia on the other. Its object was declared to be for the "restoring between France and her neighbors those relations of reciprocal confidence and good-will which the fatal effects of the revolution and of the system of conquest had for so long a time disturbed."

Parliament assembled on February 1, 1816, and the opposition used every effort to put an end to many of the taxes levied for war purposes; Mr. Brougham was very active, and availed himself of every means of delay afforded by the forms of the House. But when the ministers proposed a magnificent establishment for the Princess Charlotte and Prince Leopold (afterward King of the Belgians), upon their marriage, not a dissentient voice was heard.

Troubles arose in 1816. The depression in business was general; the fall in agricultural profits had ruined many banks in the provinces, and induced others to restrict their circulation. A severe winter, a deficient harvest, and the rise in the price of wheat came to complete the general misery. The effect was widespread, and serious riots the consequence; while hunger and misery, the depression of trade, and the influence of a few able demagogues, were driving the working classes to acts of violence, and a dangerous union was being established between social and political discontent. In February, 1817, the government introduced and carried bills through Parliament for preventing attempts to seduce soldiers and sailors from their allegiance, to prevent seditious meetings, and for the suspension of the habeas corpus act until July 1st.

The death of the Princess Charlotte, the presumptive heiress of the British crown, on November 6, 1817, after the birth of a dead child, plunged the nation into deep and universal grief. From the highest to the lowest this death was looked upon as a great calamity. She was a beautiful, accomplished, and noble-hearted woman, and the nation had looked forward to the days when a virtuous queen should diffuse the sunlight of just government through every corner of a prosperous and happy land. She had married the man of her choice, from love and affection.

The prince brought neither territory nor influence, but he brought an active, firm, inquiring mind and an amiable temper, and the sympathy of the whole nation was with him.

After the death of the princess, the prince regent had been seriously indisposed, and for a short time his life was considered in danger. It seemed for the moment that the large and strong family of the old king would come to an end in the first generation.

Before the close of the following year this probability was lessened. No less than four members of the royal family were then married. The Princess Elizabeth had married the Landgrave of Hesse Homburg; the Duke of Clarence, the king's third son, the Princess Adelaide of Saxe Meiningen, July 13th; the Duke of Cambridge married the Princess Augusta of Hesse, June 1st; and the Duke of Kent, George's fourth son, July 13th, married the Princess Victoria Mary Louisa, daughter of the Duke of Saxe Coburg Saalfeld, widow of Enrich Charles, Prince of Leiningen, and sister of Prince Leopold; and by this marriage was born, on May 24, 1819, the Princess Victoria, the present queen.

On November 17, 1818, took place the death of Queen Charlotte, at the age of seventy-five. For fifty-seven years she had shared the political anxieties and watched over the mental aberrations of the king, who had, since 1811, ceased to be conscious of the sympathy of wife or child. Under the regency bill she was appointed custos of the king's person, and at her death the Duke of York, the king's second son, was appointed to that office.

A new parliament assembled January 14, 1819, and Mr. Manners-Sutton was elected Speaker. The opening speech was delivered by commission on the 21st. The principal business before the House was the state of the currency, and a bill was passed for the resumption of specie payments the following year. The report of a committee was received recommending the repeal of many capital punishments. In this session the question of parliamentary reform was agitated by Sir Francis Burdett. He proposed that early in the next session the House should take into consideration the state of the representation.

The occasion was remarkable for the first declaration of the opinions of Lord John Russell, who had just entered Parliament at the age of twenty-one years.

On May 3d Mr. Grattan was heard for the last time in the House of Commons, in support of the measure nearest to his heart—that of Catholic emancipation. After his speech the House divided, and his motion was lost by two votes. On July 13th Parliament was prorogued.

Parliament had adjourned to February 15, 1820. An event not unexpected at any time during the last year or two called the Houses together at an earlier period. George III. died at Windsor Castle on the evening of January 29th. Six days before the death of the king his fourth son, the Duke of Kent, expired at Weymouth. This was a sudden event. The duke's infant daughter, Alexandrina Victoria, was then eight months old. The Prince of Wales and the Duke of York had no child to succeed. A daughter had been born to the Duke of Clarence on March 27th, but died on the day of her birth. It seemed probable that the Duke of Kent's daughter would succeed to the throne; and on this probability those who knew the admirable qualities of the Duchess of Kent felt hopeful and confident that the nurture of the royal child would fit her for her royal destiny.

George III. died in the eighty-second year of his age and the sixtieth year of his reign, including the regency. He passed away and the people looked back with reverence upon his private virtues, and were willing to forget his kingly faults. He was succeeded by his eldest son, George Augustus Frederick, the Prince Regent.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—France: Louis XVII., the Republic, Napoleon, Louis XVIII., Charles X.; Emperors of the West: Leopold II., Francis II. (the last), end of the empire, 1806; Emperors of Russia: Paul, Alexander, Nicholas; Prussia: Frederick William II., Frederick William III.; Austria: Francis, Francis I.; Spain: Charles IV., Ferdinand VII., Joseph Bonaparte.

George IV.—A.D. 1820–1830.

Born at St. James's Palace, August 12, 1762.

Married, April 8, 1795, his cousin, the Princess Caroline, daughter of Charles, Duke of Brunswick. Issue :

Charlotte Augusta of Wales, born March 7, 1796. Married Leopold, son of Francis, Duke of Saxe Coburg Saalfeld, died in childbirth, November 6, 1817.

Ascended the throne, January 29, 1820.

Crowned, July 19, 1821.

Died, June 26, 1830.

GEORGE AUGUSTUS FREDERICK, eldest son of George III. and his queen Charlotte Sophia of Mecklenburg Strelitz, was born in London, August 12, 1762. He was educated with great care and closely restrained until his eighteenth year, when he commenced a career of extravagance and profligacy that contrasted painfully with the upright life of his father. He early formed a connection with Mrs. Mary Robinson, an actress and wife of an attorney, who afterward became well-known by her novels and other writings. He also became intimate with Fox, Sheridan, and other Whig leaders, who were his companions in dissipation, and whose politics he adopted in open opposition to his father. In 1783 his friends came into power as the famous coalition ministry, and on November 11th of that year he took his seat in the House of Lords as Duke of Cornwall, and as a supporter of the new administration, when they immediately demanded for him an augmented establishment and allowance, and Carlton House was assigned to him as a residence. When his friends lost office, he stood by and tried to restore them to power.

In 1785 he was privately married to Mrs. Fitzherbert. There was no doubt about this marriage, but it was illegal without the consent of the king, and she being a Roman Catholic, the marriage, if valid, would have excluded him from the succession. When it was referred to in Parliament in the debate on the prince's debts, Fox denied it, as he said, on the highest authority; after so strong a denial, his debts were paid to the amount of £160,000.

In 1791 a difference arose between the prince and his sporting

companions. He sold his horses, shut up Carlton House, and devoted himself to the payment of his debts, and in a speech in the House of Lords separated himself from his old political friends.

Seven years afterward he again applied to Parliament for relief, as he found himself £700,000 in debt. The only terms on which he could get assistance were, that he should marry legally, and the king had chosen a wife for him in the person of his cousin, the Princess Caroline of Brunswick, whom he had never seen. Lord Malmesbury arranged the negotiation, but unwisely suppressed what he saw clearly himself, the entire unfitness of the lady for the position she was to occupy. He found her frivolous, slovenly, ill-educated, and quite deficient in tact; it was impossible that she should prove otherwise than distasteful to any refined gentleman, and an alliance between a reckless voluptuary and such a woman could only have one ending.

Malmesbury did his duty in offering her advice, especially on the toilet, cleanliness, and delicacy in speaking—strange subjects of discussion with a lady who might be Queen of England.

The destined bride and the ambassador set out at last for the Court of St. James's, and on April 5, 1795, their arrival was notified to the king and Prince of Wales. The princess was introduced to the prince, who came alone to receive her. She attempted to kneel, as she was instructed; he raised her gracefully enough and embraced her, said barely one word, turned round, retired to a distant part of the apartment, and, calling to his equerry, said, "I am not well, get me a glass of brandy." He recommended water, and the prince exclaiming "No!" with an oath, rushed away to the queen. Well might Caroline inquire in astonishment, "Is the prince often like that?" The marriage took place three days afterward, and his debts were paid.

After they had lived together a year, during which time their only child, the Princess Charlotte, was born, they separated by mutual consent; anxious for a complete divorce he endeavored to prove his wife unfaithful. About this time he had returned to the association of Fox and his old political friends, and he was made a rallying centre for the Whigs, while the Tories nat-

urally clung to the princess who had also the sympathy of the king. Under these circumstances took place the first investigation by Parliament into her conduct.

The principal decisions of the investigation which were made public acquitted the princess fully, although the question was made a matter of political dispute. It seems that at most she was guilty of imprudent acts only while in England. Her father-in-law always protected her, not only because he had arranged the marriage, but also because he hated her husband.

It was not until he became regent that the prince assumed political importance.

Upon the accession of George IV., January 29, 1820, there were the same ministers in the Cabinet as those which formed the administration of the Earl of Liverpool at the close of the war, with the exception of Mr. Canning, who in 1816 succeeded the Earl of Buckinghamshire as President of the Board of Control.

The statutes of William and of Anne provided that the demise of the sovereign should not interfere with the regular course of constitutional government. Under these statutes the Parliament, although adjourned until February 15th, assembled on Sunday morning, January 30th, and adjourned until the following day, and then proceeded to the swearing in of its members. On February 17th, both Houses having assembled, a message was delivered from the king, recommending that such measures should be adopted by the House of Commons as were necessary to provide for the exigencies of the public service during the short period that must elapse between the termination of the present session and the opening of a new parliament, which it was his Majesty's intention to call without delay.

Both Houses of Parliament sat until February 28th, when they were prorogued by commission, with a view of immediate dissolution. The speech from the throne alluded to the flagrant and sanguinary conspiracy which had lately been detected.

The Cato Street conspiracy was discovered immediately after the accession. A conspiracy had been formed having in view the murder of all the ministers in a body at a Cabinet dinner to be given by Lord Harrowby on February 23d; the assassina-

tion was to be followed by an attempt to burn the barracks and to rouse the people to riot, and an assault upon the Bank of England, the Tower, and other public buildings. As the ministry were well informed of the plot, the dinner was postponed, without the knowledge of the conspirators, and they were arming themselves in a stable in Cato Street, near Edgeware Road, when the police came upon them.

The capture was badly managed. Thistlewood, who was the soul of the conspiracy, with fourteen others, contrived to escape; the rest, nine in number, were captured. Early the next morning, however, Thistlewood was captured. He and four others were executed; five more transported for life. The conspiracy for a time was the all-absorbing topic, until its interest was lost on the subject connected with Queen Caroline being brought before the House of Commons.

The king opened the new session of Parliament April 27, 1820. He had a brief popularity on declaring that he left entirely to the disposal of Parliament his interest in the hereditary revenues, and that he had no wish that any addition whatever should be made to the settlement adopted by Parliament in 1816.

Amidst this sunshine a little cloud was seen from afar: some members of the opposition began again to call attention to the position of the queen.

Whatever may have been her folly or her guilt, no one can question her misfortune. Giddy by nature, and badly educated, she had been forced, against her will, upon a man whose immoral and selfish character wholly unfitted him for his position as the husband of a frivolous and unwise wife. From the very first he seems to have determined to part from her. She was early sent into a sort of banishment at Blackheath; a watch was set upon her conduct; an investigation before the Lords was set on foot, and, though declared innocent of any grave offence, disgusted at such treatment, she unwisely left for the continent. She was followed in her retirement by emissaries, to collect evidence against her, unknown to herself.

When her husband came to the throne, and her name was omitted from the Liturgy, this last insult aroused her to action.

She returned to England in June, 1820, and was well received by the people, who considered her a persecuted woman. She took up her residence at the house of Alderman Wood, in South Audley Street. On the same evening a message from the king was presented to both Houses, announcing her arrival, and stating that his Majesty had thought it right to communicate certain papers, respecting the conduct of her Majesty since she left this country. The sealed papers were laid on the tables of each House.

In the House of Lords it was agreed that the papers should be referred to a secret committee. In the Commons, previous to taking into consideration the king's message, Mr. Brougham, as her Majesty's attorney-general, presented a communication from the queen, in which she stated that she had returned to England in consequence of measures pursued against her honor and her peace by agents abroad.

On April 15th a proposition was made on the part of the king, and it was agreed that two confidential servants of his Majesty should meet two appointed by the queen, to frame an arrangement for settling the necessary particulars of her Majesty's future situation, upon the condition of her residence abroad. The Duke of Wellington and Lord Castlereagh were appointed on the part of the king, and Mr. Brougham and Mr. Denman on the part of the queen. This negotiation failed through the want of concession on either side on one point alone: the queen insisting on the insertion of her name in the Liturgy, which was refused by the king. The name and rights of a queen were granted to her Majesty without reserve; a royal yacht and frigate were offered, and it was agreed that her name and rank should be notified at the court either of Rome or Milan, the capitals of the countries in which she intended to reside. On June 19th it was announced to Parliament that this negotiation had failed.

On July 4th, the secret committee of the Lords made its report, declaring that the evidence affecting the honor of the queen was such as to require a strict inquiry, which might be best effected by the course of a legislative proceeding. Lord Liverpool then proposed a bill of pains and penalties, which had for its object "to deprive her Majesty, Queen Caroline Amelia

Elizabeth, of the title, prerogatives, rights, privileges, and exemptions of queen consort of this realm, and to dissolve the marriage between his Majesty and the said Caroline," and on July 17, 1820, commenced what is popularly known as the Queen's Trial.

The principal charge was "that her Royal Highness had conducted herself toward Bartolomeo Bergami, a foreigner engaged in her service in a menial situation, both in public and private, with indecent and offensive familiarity and freedom, and carried on with him a licentious, disgraceful, and adulterous intercourse." After a long debate, in which Mr. Brougham displayed great power and fertility of mind, the bill was proposed to be read a third time, and then to be sent to the Commons. On a division, it was found the government's majority had dwindled down, and the vote stood: ayes, 108; nays, 99. With such a small majority, and considering the present state of the country, the ministry decided to withdraw the bill. There was great joy throughout the land at the termination of these proceedings. On November 29th Parliament was prorogued.

In the next session of Parliament there were violent discussions on her Majesty's affairs, particularly on her continued exclusion from the Liturgy. An annuity of £50,000 was provided for her by act of Parliament. Her popularity gradually declined, and she was now hardly named in society or the newspapers.

The coronation of George IV. took place at Westminster on July 19, 1821. Caroline insisted on being crowned with him, and on having her name inserted in the Liturgy. This was refused. She presented herself at the abbey, but was denied admittance.

This disappointment, added to the excitement which she had already undergone, was her death-blow. On August 3d she was attacked by inflammatory disease, and died on the 7th, in the fifty-second year of her age. Her funeral was attended with riots; the mob compelled the procession to pass through the city, where two persons were shot by the military. The remains were then conveyed to Brunswick for burial.

The king had departed for Dublin August 1st, and received at Holyhead the intelligence of the queen's death, which terminated his domestic trouble.

The session of Parliament was opened by the king in person February 5, 1822.

In the speech from the throne he said: "I continue to receive from foreign powers the strongest assurances of their friendly disposition. In my visit to Ireland I derived the sincerest gratification from the loyalty and attachment manifested by all classes of my subjects, and believe my presence there had been productive of very beneficial effects, although it was a matter of the deepest concern to me that a spirit of outrage in some parts of that country had led to daring and systematic violations of the law."

The commerce and manufactures of the kingdom were flourishing, but the agricultural interest was greatly depressed.

The debates of this session were uninteresting, and only in regard to local matters.

On August 10, 1822, the king embarked at Greenwich for the purpose of visiting Scotland, and on the 18th he landed at Leith. His reception was most cordial and sincere. He held his levees in Holyrood House, and dressed in the Highland costume of "the Royal Stuarts."

The progress of liberal opinions was making itself felt in England; the ministry had to go with the current, and the king was greatly perplexed. The foreign policy of Canning, decidedly opposed to the Holy Alliance, was detestable to him. When the French army entered Spain to restore absolutism, England was greatly excited, and nothing but financial considerations prevented war with France.

Lord Wellesley, a favorite of Catholic claims, was made Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. He attempted, in the midst of the wild excitement then existing, to follow a cool and impartial policy, but he pleased neither of the two principal parties, and became unpopular. The Catholic party in Ireland, under O'Connell, set on foot the great organization known as the Catholic Association, which, while it held aloof from the other secret societies, was inspired as completely with fanaticism as any of its

predecessors had been. Its principal object was the preparation of petitions to Parliament to procure the relief and removal of the civil disabilities of Roman Catholics, and it soon reached a point when the ministry had to choose between concessions and civil war. George III. had declared that he never would consent to the admission of Roman Catholics into Parliament, and his illness had been attributed to the subject having been forced upon his attention by Mr. Pitt.

During the life of that sovereign, therefore, the Catholics abandoned all hope of relief; but the case was different on the accession of George IV. After the death of Mr. Perceval, in 1812, the Catholic question became an open one in the Cabinet. Canning distinguished himself as an advocate of relief, and the subject was frequently debated in Parliament, but nothing was done. In 1825 a relief bill, introduced by Sir Francis Burdett, passed the Commons, upon which the Duke of York went down to the House of Lords and took a solemn oath that in case he should succeed to the crown he would permit no change. The bill was rejected by the Lords.

In 1823 the old navigation laws passed in Cromwell's time were repealed; they provided that the goods of Asia, Africa, and America could be brought to England in English ships only. Notwithstanding the grumbling from shipowners, it was soon found the amount of tonnage steadily increased; and the independence of the Spanish American colonies was effectually promoted in this year.

Lord Sidmouth retired from the Home Office and was succeeded by Mr. Peel; the suicide of Lord Castlereagh created another vacancy in the Cabinet. Mr. Canning was now a leading man in the House of Commons; the East India Company had offered him the Governor-generalship of India, and he was preparing to depart when the king was forced to waive his antipathy to him, and asked him to enter the Cabinet as Secretary of Foreign Affairs, which he accepted, and he became leader of the House of Commons.

Canning followed Pitt's principles of commercial freedom and financial reform, and they were put in practice by Huskisson, who became president of the Board of Trade.

The prosperity of the country steadily continued. Peel led the way in ameliorating the criminal law; Brougham labored in the cause of education, and the work of Catholic emancipation went vigorously forward.

The year 1824 was a year of great material prosperity, but was followed by a crash in 1825.

The Burmese war began in 1824, continued two years, and ended with a considerable accession to the British territory on the eastern coast of the Bay of Bengal.

Great financial troubles extended over England at the commencement of 1826; in six weeks between sixty and seventy banks had stopped payment. The misery attendant on these disasters was so great that government had to come forward with assistance.

The bank and the mint set hard to work to supply notes and coin, and one hundred and fifty thousand sovereigns a day were turned out for some time. By the end of the year the worst of the trouble was over.

On January 5, 1827, died the Duke of York, heir apparent to the throne, leaving the Duke of Clarence next heir, and the Duke of Wellington became Commander-in-chief of the army.

Shortly afterward Lord Liverpool, who had been Prime Minister since 1812, was seized by apoplexy and incapacitated from further attention to public business. The contest that followed for the premiership ended in the triumph of Mr. Canning, who became First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, whereupon the Duke of Wellington, Mr. Peel, and Lord Eldon resigned, and Sir J. Copley, now created Lord Lyndhurst, became Lord Chancellor.

Nothing of importance, however, was done in Mr. Canning's short administration, as he died on August 8th of the same year. He had to endure trying personal attacks, as by many of the aristocracy he was regarded as an adventurer and an upstart. His death was caused by anxiety and vexation no less than by a cold caught at the funeral of the Duke of York. He was privately buried in Westminster Abbey, and was succeeded in the premiership by Mr. Robinson, afterward Lord Goderich, whose administration, like the preceding one, lasted only a few

months. The only important event that occurred in it was the battle of Navarino, and the establishment of the Greek independence. The cause of Greece was supported, from different views, by Russia, France, and England, which powers had squadrons cruising in the Levant, that of the English being under command of Sir Edward Codrington. War had not been declared; the Turkish and Egyptian fleets, under Ibrahim Pasha, lay in the Bay of Navarino, and there was an understanding that it should remain there till the affairs of Greece were arranged. The Turks having attempted to violate this agreement, a general engagement ensued, October 27, 1827, and the Turkish and Egyptian fleets were completely destroyed. Greece was then erected into a separate kingdom, and the crown was eventually conferred (in 1832) on Prince Otho, a younger son of the King of Bavaria.

The differences in financial matters between Mr. Herries, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Mr. Huskisson, Secretary of State for the Colonies, could not be reconciled by Lord Goderich, and he therefore tendered his resignation to the king, January 9, 1828. His Majesty immediately sent for Lord Lyndhurst and the Duke of Wellington to come to Windsor, and a Cabinet was formed—the duke as First Lord of the Treasury, Lyndhurst retaining his old office, and Peel as Home Secretary.

A great parliamentary struggle was at hand, in 1828, which was the prelude to a still more important conflict in 1829. This was Lord John Russell's motion, on February 26th, for a committee of the whole house to consider so much of the acts of the 13th and 25th of Charles II., as requires persons, before admission into any office under the crown, to receive the sacrament of the Lord's supper, according to the practice of the Church of England.

The motion was opposed by Huskisson, Palmerston, and Peel; nevertheless it was carried on a division by a majority of forty-four. The ministry considered they would not be justified in abandoning the service of the crown, and made a compromise that a declaration should be substituted in place of the sacramental test, which was agreed to.

On July 5, 1828, Mr. O'Connell was elected for Clare to the

Imperial Parliament; the great agitator did not take his seat, for the session was nearly at an end.

The Duke of Wellington in the course of the debate, in May, 1829, said: "It is now well known, that during the whole of the last summer and autumn, I had those measures in contemplation which have been since brought into effect. It is also well known that my principal object, and that to which all my efforts were directed, was to prevail upon the person in these kingdoms the most interested of all others, from his situation, in the settlement of the Roman Catholic question, to give his consent to its being brought forward."

Peel, the next influential member of the ministry, had since the election of O'Connell, arrived at the conclusion that the solution of the question could no longer be postponed, and that only one form of solution was possible. The election of Catholics, while still unable to sit in Parliament, would deprive Ireland of its representation. So important an event as O'Connell's election, could not possibly pass unnoticed and the question be left unaltered. With the present House a high-handed repression of the association in Ireland was impossible; were it attempted by a new house, a civil war would be inevitable; there remained but a third course—to give way. The previous year Peel had told the Duke of Wellington that he considered that an attempt to settle the Catholic question was a lesser evil than to continue to leave it open; at the same time he wished to resign, and to leave the bringing in of the measure to other hands. Although aware of the penalty he should be called upon to pay for this change of opinion—the attacks to which he would be subject, and the loss of friends—he was at length persuaded by Wellington, who felt it impossible to carry out the government without him, to retain his place.

Accordingly, in the royal speech at the opening of Parliament, February 5, 1829, it was stated that measures must first of all be taken to establish authority, by the destruction of the association, and that then the whole condition of Ireland should be taken into consideration, with a view of altering the laws, so as to remove civil disabilities from his Majesty's Roman Catholic subjects. The speech came as a blow to the high Tories, but

immediate discussion was postponed at the request of the ministry. Meanwhile the preliminary measure for the destruction of the association was brought in. But its necessity was forestalled by the clever tactics of the Irish who dissolved their association before the bill obtained the force of law. Peel having declared his change of opinion, thought it incumbent on him to resign his seat for Oxford, which he no doubt owed to his anti-Catholic views. The events of the election proved that he was right; the seat was contested by Sir Robert Inglis, who was elected by a large majority. Peel found a seat at Westbury.

The coast seemed now clear for the great measure, but the king made a final stand. The very day before the bill was to be introduced (March 4th) he sent unexpectedly for Wellington, Lyndhurst, and Peel, declared he had been misunderstood, withdrew his sanction, and asked what they now intended to do about Ireland. Peel declared that nothing now remained for him but to resign. The duke and Lord Chancellor expressed the same intention, and they left the presence of the king, who bade them a most friendly farewell, in the belief that the ministry was at an end. Late at night Wellington received a letter, in which the king said that he was convinced of the impossibility of forming another ministry, and begged them to remain. Knowing his weak character, it was only on receiving express leave to declare that the measure was brought in with his consent that they agreed to remain.

On March 5, 1829, the bill was brought before Parliament. It substituted a new form of oath, thus: if a Catholic bound himself to support the state and not injure the church, he could sit in either House of Parliament, had a perfect equality with his Protestant neighbors, and was eligible for all offices, civil, military, or municipal, with the exception of the office of Regent, of Lord Chancellor, of Viceroy of Ireland, or Royal Commissioner of the General Assembly of Scotland.

After a long debate, the bill passed by a majority of one hundred and seventy-eight in a House of four hundred and fifty-two. In the Lords it passed a third reading by a vote of two hundred and thirteen to two hundred and nine, and it became

law, having received the royal assent on April 13th, and on June 24th Parliament was prorogued.

The landowners, when they returned to their country mansions, did not find happy faces amidst either tenants or laborers. The summer and autumn were wet and cold; the harvest was protracted; the crops were badly got in, and were hurried to market. They were found to be of very inferior quality, and prices suffered, consequently, a great depression. Then came the severest winter since 1813-14. Parliament met February 4, 1830. The king's speech lamented that, notwithstanding the indication of active commerce afforded by increased exports, distress greatly prevailed amongst the agricultural and manufacturing classes.

The government announced its intention of considerably reducing the expenditure, and on March 15th the Chancellor of the Exchequer proposed the total remission of the excise duties on beer, cider, and leather; increased duties on spirits were to supply a portion of the deficiency.

Motions for reform of Parliament were brought forward. Mr. O'Connell proposed to bring in a bill to establish universal suffrage, triennial parliaments, and vote by ballot, all of which were lost. On May 24th a message was sent to both Houses of Parliament by the king announcing his illness, and stating the inconvenience of signing public instruments with his own hand. A bill was introduced for the appointment of commissioners to affix the king's sign-manual by a stamp, in the king's presence, and by his immediate order, given by word of mouth. The bill received the royal assent on May 29th. On June 26th, at three o'clock in the morning, King George IV. expired at Windsor Castle, in the sixty-eighth year of his age and the tenth of his reign.

It is difficult to look back upon the career of this prince, whose sovereignty either as regent or king formed one of the most important eras in the annals of the country without feeling how much his life had been one of great opportunities wasted and of natural powers perverted; how the circumstances by which he had been surrounded from his youth were almost wholly injurious to his character and his happiness.

The Duke of Wellington has given a character of the monarch who held in dread the great captain's strong sense and inflexible resolution: "He was indeed," said the duke, "the most extraordinary compound of talent, wit, buffoonery, obstinacy, and good feeling—in short, a medley of the most opposite qualities, with a great preponderance of good—that I ever saw in any character in my life."

George IV. left no legitimate issue, and was succeeded by his brother, William Henry, Duke of Clarence.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS. — France: Charles X.; Russia: Nicholas; Prussia: Frederick William III.; Austria: Francis I.; Spain: Ferdinand VII.

William IV.—A.D. 1830–1837.

Born, August 24, 1765.

Ascended the throne, June 26, 1830.

Crowned, September 8, 1831.

Married, June 11, 1818, the Princess Adelaide, daughter of George, Duke of Saxe Meiningen. Issue:

Two daughters, who died young.

Died, June 20, 1837.

WILLIAM HENRY, fifth sovereign of the Hanoverian line, and third son of King George III. and his queen, Charlotte Sophia, of Mecklenburg Strelitz, was born in London, August 24, 1765.

Prince William Henry entered the royal navy, June 15, 1779, as a midshipman on board H. M. Ship *Prince George*, which, being attached to Admiral Rodney's fleet, took part in two actions against the Spaniards. He served again in the channel fleet and in the fleet sent in 1781 to relieve Gibraltar.

In 1782 he arrived in New York on board the *Prince George*; he subsequently served in the West Indies, having been transferred to H. M. S. *Warwick*.

In June, 1785, he was made a lieutenant, was posted in the following year, and appointed to command the *Pegasus*, serving under Nelson in the West Indies. Having gone north without orders, he was punished on his return to England by confinement within the limits of the Plymouth garrison, and by being sent abroad again to the Halifax and West India stations.

He returned to England in 1789, and was created Duke of

Clarence, and took his seat in the House of Lords on June 8th, and an income of £12,000 a year was settled on him by Parliament.

When war with Spain was threatened, he was appointed to the line of battle ship *Valiant*, of seventy-four guns, later was made a Rear Admiral of the Blue, and in 1801 reached the rank of Admiral of the Fleet.

He seldom spoke in the House of Lords except on naval affairs; but he opposed the abolition of the slave trade, supported the peace of Amiens, and also the renewal of the war with France in 1803, and in 1811 protested against the regency bill. At the close of 1813 he commanded on the Dutch coast, supporting Sir Thomas Graham against the French, and was slightly wounded.

In 1818 he married the Princess Adelaide of Saxe Meiningen, On the trial of Queen Caroline he supported the king, and was severely handled by Mr. Brougham, the queen's attorney-general.

The death of the Duke of York in 1827 made him heir apparent, and the Canning ministry revived for him the office of Lord High Admiral, which he held until September, 1828.

Although without a seat in the Cabinet, he was foremost among the supporters of Catholic emancipation.

On June 25, 1830, both Houses of Parliament had adjourned until the following Monday. The death of George IV. having taken place early in the morning of the 26th, summonses were issued for the immediate attendance of the peers, for the purpose of taking the oath of allegiance to King William IV., which was administered by the Lord Chancellor, and the king was proclaimed with the usual form.

It was perhaps fortunate that the late king was succeeded by a man of very different character, whose simplicity and geniality speedily made him as popular as his brother had been the reverse. The little care with which he performed the outward forms of dignity shocked the older Tories. The freedom with which he admitted men of both parties to his table and his court seemed to promise a reign conducted on constitutional principles, and without party bias, on the part of the crown.

The popularity of the king was at that time of great importance, because of the excitement of the Revolution in France, which spread rapidly over Europe, especially in Belgium, and met with great sympathy in England. If an unpopular monarch had been upon the throne, the crown might easily have been involved in the quarrel with the people, as among the classes which of late years had been in a constant state of discontent it was accepted as an example to be at once followed.

The business of Parliament commenced June 29th. A message from the king recommended "such temporary provision as may be requisite for the public service in the interval that may elapse between the close of the present session and the meeting of a new Parliament." During the remaining three weeks of the session there was much sharp discussion in both Houses. In the House of Lords, Earl Grey, upon the question of an address to his majesty, moved, June 30th, an amendment to adjourn, in order to give time for the consideration of the civil list, and the expediency of providing a regency, but his motion was lost.

On July 23d the king prorogued Parliament in person. The royal speech contained these flattering words: "It is with the utmost satisfaction that I find myself enabled to congratulate you upon the general tranquillity of Europe." On the following day Parliament was dissolved by proclamation.

With the death of the king, the chief necessity for retaining the Duke of Wellington in his position had disappeared, and the time seemed to have come for sweeping away the government which was bent on keeping things exactly as they were; the dissolution of Parliament afforded the duke's enemies the opportunity they required. In the midst of the excitement of a new election, the reformers began to cover the land with associations, and the elections proved disastrous to the government. They had lost at least fifty seats.

In Ireland O'Connell was using all his energies in preaching the necessity of repeal of the Union, and heaping fierce and unmeaning hatred against the government. He had re-established the association under the name of the "Friends of Ireland,"

and when the Lord Lieutenant declared this illegal, it assumed a new form, as the Society of Irish Volunteers.

In October it was found necessary in Tipperary to employ the military for suppressing an outbreak. In London, too, the old demagogues began to make their appearance. Meanwhile the ministry took no step to declare its intention, and made no advance toward strengthening itself by union with any other party.

On September 15, 1830, a number of guests, among whom was the Duke of Wellington, were asked to attend the opening of the first great railway in England, running between Liverpool and Manchester. Several gentlemen left their seats, and a mutual friend brought Huskisson to the carriage where the duke sat, to attempt a reconciliation. Suddenly a train came up upon the other line; Huskisson fell, was struck by the engine, and was so severely injured that he died within a few hours.

The formal commencement of the ninth Parliament of the United Kingdom had taken place October 26th. The members of both Houses had taken the customary oaths; Mr. Manners-Sutton had been re-elected Speaker.

On November 2d King William opened the Parliament in person. Never had public expectation been so roused to discuss the probable tone of the king's speech; never was one of the great parties more exultant, or the other more indignant, than when it was intimated that a reform in Parliament would have no sanction from the government.

In the House of Lords, Lord Grey, in speaking on the address in answer to the speech from the throne, said, "The only mode to avert from this country the dangers which are apprehended from the political convulsions of Europe is to secure the affections of the people, to redress their grievances, and, my lords, I will pronounce the word, by reform in Parliament."

The Duke of Wellington, in answer, said that the legislature and the system of representation possessed the full and entire confidence of the country. He was not prepared to bring forward any measure of the description alluded to by the noble lord, and he would also declare that so long as he held any station in the government, he should feel it his duty to resist such measures when proposed by others.

In the House of Commons Mr. Brongham gave notice that it was his intention on that day fortnight to bring the great question of a reform of the Commons' House of Parliament fully under consideration. His object was not revolution, but restoration. On that day fortnight the government of the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel was at an end.

At such a crisis it was impossible that any statesman except Lord Grey should be intrusted with the formation of a cabinet. He found no difficulty in selecting his ministers. The Chancellorship of the Exchequer was given to Lord Althorpe; Lord Lansdowne was President of the Council; Lambton, now become Lord Durham, was Lord Privy Seal; the secretaryships were supplied from the ranks of the Canningites—Palmerston, Melbourne, and Goderich were respectively Foreign, Home, and Colonial Secretaries. Holland, Auckland, and Graham were also in the Cabinet. In office, but not in the Cabinet, were Lord John Russell, as Paymaster-General, and Mr. Stanley, afterward Lord Derby, as Secretary for Ireland.

On February 3, 1831, when Parliament reassembled, the intention of the ministry to produce a measure of parliamentary reform was made known, and the day for its introduction was fixed for March 1st.

The bill was introduced on that day by Lord John Russell, and after a long and violent debate the ministry were defeated. On April 21st they advised the king to dissolve Parliament, which he did the following day. That night London was illuminated, by the sanction of the Lord Mayor, and was attended with much rioting, the mob attacking the houses of the Duke of Wellington and other anti-reformers.

The appeal to the people was signally triumphant, and on the meeting of the new Parliament, June 14th, the ministers found themselves with a majority of one hundred and thirty-six. Mr. Manners-Sutton was chosen Speaker for the sixth time. The king went in state to the House of Lords on the 21st, and in his speech from the throne recommended the important question of reform in the representation to the earliest and most attentive consideration of Parliament.

On June 24th, Lord John Russell again brought forward the

Reform Bill, with a few alterations. After thirty-nine sittings of the committee, it was brought before the House for its third reading, and on September 21st passed the Commons by a majority of one hundred and thirty-six votes.

It was still, however, violently opposed by a powerful party in the state who regarded the bill as an attack upon their private property—for it was notorious that estates commanding the nomination of a member of Parliament held a price very far above their intrinsic value.

When the bill was brought up to the House of Lords, it was rejected, October 7th, by a majority of forty-one, after five nights' debate. This step was followed by disgraceful riots. In London the populace were controlled by the police, and contented themselves by breaking the windows of obnoxious anti-reformers; but in several of the provincial towns fearful disturbances ensued.

At Nottingham the ancient castle, the residence of the Duke of Newcastle, was burned; at Derby the jail was forced and the prisoners liberated; whilst at Bristol, where the riots lasted several days, many of the public buildings were destroyed by fire on October 29th, and about one hundred persons killed or seriously wounded.

Ireland was also in a disturbed condition. After the emancipation of the Catholics had deprived O'Connell of the means of collecting the "rent" and of securing himself an income from the pockets of the poor Irish, he had raised the cry for the repeal of the union, and the most frightful nocturnal disorders, and even mid-day murders, became frequent. To add to the confusion and misery, England was visited this autumn, for the first time, by the cholera.

Both Houses of Parliament assembled December 6, 1831, and the king's speech recommended a careful consideration of the measures to be proposed for the reform of Parliament. After prolonged debate, the Reform Bill again passed the Commons in March, 1832, by a majority of 116. On March 26th the bill was carried to the House of Lords.

The peers now displayed more disposition to yield, but as it was evident the bill would be mutilated in committee, Lord

Grey proposed to the king the creation of a sufficient number of peers to carry it through. The king demurring, the ministers resigned, and the Duke of Wellington was instructed to form a Cabinet; this he could not accomplish. The king was now obliged to yield at discretion, and recalled his former ministers. On May 15th they returned to office with a reluctant promise from the king to create a number of peers. Lord Brougham requested permission to have the promise in writing. The words of this document were as follows: "The king grants permission to Earl Grey and to his Chancellor, Lord Brougham, to create such a number of peers as will be sufficient to insure the passing of the Reform Bill, first calling up peers' eldest sons." The power of creating peers was not required. The king, through his influence with the opposition peers, induced them either to absent themselves from the House or desist from further attempts to arrest the course of the bill; whereupon it passed the Lords by a majority of 84, and received the royal assent June 7, 1832.

The main principle of the Reform Bill was that boroughs having a less population than two thousand should cease to return members, and that those having a less population than four thousand should cease to return more than one member. By this bill fifty-six boroughs were totally disfranchised, and thirty-one more lost one of their members. The total number of old borough members thus disfranchised was one hundred and forty-three. Their seats were transferred to several large towns, such as Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, and others which had grown into importance during the last century. Between forty and fifty new boroughs were created, including the four metropolitan boroughs of Marylebone, Finsbury, Tower Hamlets, and Lambeth, each of the last returning two members.

An aristocratic counterpoise seemed in some degree to be established by the additions to the county members. The larger counties were divided into districts, and while previously there had been fifty-two constituencies, returning ninety-four members, there were now eighty-two constituencies, returning one hundred and fifty-nine members. But, on the other hand, both the county and borough franchises were extended. In the coun-

ties the old 40/ freeholds were retained, and three new classes of voters were introduced: first, copyholders of £10 per annum; second, leaseholders of the annual value of £10 for a term of sixty years, or of the annual value of £50 for a term of twenty years; third, occupying tenants paying an annual rent of £50. In boroughs the franchise was given to all £10 resident householders, subject to certain conditions. Such were the principal features of this bill, which formed the greatest revolution the country had experienced since the revolution of 1688.

The disturbances in Ireland had now reached a frightful pitch. It had become impossible to collect tithe; the collectors were murdered or mutilated; there were regular engagements between the police and the peasantry, and the Protestant clergy were almost starving. To remedy this state of things, the government introduced a coercion bill, which, while it provided a remedy for many of the grievances complained of, enabled the Lord Lieutenant to prevent all public meetings of a dangerous character, and to place disturbed districts under martial law.

Parliament was prorogued August 16th, and dissolved by proclamation December 3d.

The elections under the new Reform Bill were all over before the end of the year, and the dreaded reform Parliament was to meet January 29, 1833. The Whigs had a large majority, but, besides an active and important body of Tories, headed by Sir Robert Peel, there was a considerable number of Radicals, of whom Joseph Hume may be regarded as the leader, together with the Irish members—for the most part the mere nominees and puppets of O'Connell—from whom opposition might be expected.

The king opened Parliament February 5th. Mr. Manners-Sutton was again elected Speaker for his great parliamentary experience, as the new House was composed of a large number of members unaccustomed to parliamentary usage; and as the government proposed to introduce a number of very important measures, it was found necessary to lengthen the hours of business.

Fears began to be entertained that the church, the aristocracy, and all the older institutions, would be swept away; but a strong

conservative spirit still existed in the nation. Sir Robert Peel, whom the Tory party had now forgiven and again treated as their leader, revived their desponding spirits, introduced an admirable organization into the party, and pointed out that a return to political power was still far from impossible. This party dropping the name of Tory, now called themselves Conservatives.

Several important measures were now brought before Parliament. A bill passed, August 30th, for the emancipation of the slaves in the West Indian colonies, and the planters were remunerated by a vote of the enormous gift of £20,000,000. Wilberforce, the father of the bill, lived long enough to hear that it had passed its second reading, and died July 29, 1833.

The charters of the Bank of England and the East India Company were renewed, and discussions on the state of the church, other local matters, and the poor law question being reserved for the following session.

When Parliament met, therefore, January, 1834, the great measure of the session was the passing of the act for the amendment and better administration of the laws relating to the poor in England and Wales. The annual amount of the poor-rate at the close of the American war, in 1783, was £2,132,487; in half a century the amount had risen to £8,606,501; the population had increased seventy-five per cent., and the levy had increased three hundred per cent.

In April Mr. O'Connell brought before the House a motion for a repeal of the union between Great Britain and Ireland, which he lost, on a division, by a vote of 123 to 38.

On May 27th, Mr. Ward, member of St. Albans, brought forward the resolutions, that the Protestant Episcopal Church of Ireland much exceeded the spiritual wants of the Protestant population; that it was the right of the State, and of Parliament, to distribute church property, and that the temporal possessions of the Irish church ought to be reduced.

The ministers determined to adopt a middle course and appoint a commission of inquiry; they hoped thereby to induce Mr. Ward to withdraw his motion, because the question was already in government hands.

While the negotiations were going on, news was received of the resignation of four of the most conservative members of the Cabinet, who regarded any interference with church property with abhorrence; they were Mr. Stanley, Sir James Graham, the Duke of Richmond, and the Earl of Ripon. No difficulty was found in filling their places; Mr. Spring Rice became Secretary for the Colonies; Lord Auckland, First Lord of the Admiralty; the Marquis of Conyngham, Postmaster-General; and the Earl of Carlisle, Lord Privy Seal.

Owing to the difference of opinion in the Cabinet on the Irish coercion bill, on July 9, 1834, Earl Grey placed his resignation as Prime Minister in the hands of the king. On the 10th the House of Commons adjourned for four days. On the 14th, Viscount Melbourne stated in the House of Lords that his Majesty had honored him with his commands for the formation of a ministry. He had undertaken the task, but it was not yet completed.

There was very little change in the Cabinet; Lord Melbourne's place in the Home Department was filled by Lord Duncannon; Sir John Cam Hobhouse obtained a seat as First Commissioner of Woods and Forests, and Lord Carlisle surrendered the Privy Seal to Lord Mulgrave.

The Irish Church Bill was again brought forward, and although it passed the Commons, was defeated in the Lords, August 1st.

The king much disliked the church policy of the Whigs, and dreaded reform. He was eager to prevent the meeting of the House, and circumstances favored him. Before the session Lord Spencer died, and Lord Althorpe, his son, was thus removed to the upper House. There was no reason why this should have broken up the ministry, but the king seized the opportunity, sent for Lord Melbourne, asserted that the ministry depended chiefly on the personal influence of Lord Althorpe in the Commons, declared that, deprived of it as it now was, the government could not go on, and dismissed his ministers, instructing Melbourne at once to send for the Duke of Wellington.

The sensation in London was great; the dismissal of the ministry was considered unconstitutional; the act of the king

was wholly without precedent—there was no disunion in the Cabinet. The ministry had retained the confidence of Parliament up to the last day of the session; they had pressed no opinions upon his Majesty, which could be disagreeable to him.

The Duke of Wellington, from November 15th to December 9th, was the First Lord of the Treasury, and the sole Secretary of State, having only one colleague, Lord Lyndhurst, who held the great seal, while at the same time he sat as Chief Baron of the Court of Exchequer. This temporary government was called a dictatorship.

The majority of the people, whose zeal for a continued course of improvement, knew perfectly well, that what was called a Conservative government could not meet the present Parliament; there must be a dissolution to afford them any chance of continuing in office.

On Sir Robert Peel's return from Italy, whence he had been called, he waited upon the king and accepted the office of First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer. With the king's permission, he applied to Lord Stanley and Sir James Graham, entreating them to give him the benefit of their co-operation as colleagues in the Cabinet. They both declined. Prevented from forming a moderate Conservative ministry, he was reduced to fill his places with men of more pronounced opinions, which promised ill for any advance in reform. As the result, Peel was Premier, First Lord of the Treasury, and Chancellor of the Exchequer: the Foreign, Home, War, and Colonial offices were filled by Wellington, Goulburn, Herries, and Aberdeen; Lord Lyndhurst was Lord Chancellor; Harding, Secretary for Ireland; and Lord Wharncliffe, Privy Seal. With this ministry Peel had to meet a hostile House of Commons, for the approach of the Conservatives to power had combined Whigs and Radicals in opposition.

The Prime Minister therefore thought it necessary to dissolve Parliament, and took the opportunity of declaring his policy. He declared his acceptance of the Reform Bill as a final settlement of the question, and promised to carry out its intentions as far as they consisted in a wise and careful improvement of old institutions.

The elections, though they returned a House, as is generally the case, more favorable to the existing government than that which had been dissolved, still gave a considerable majority to the Liberals.

The Houses of Parliament had been destroyed by fire, October 16, 1834, and temporary accommodation had been provided on the old site, where the new Parliament met on February 9, 1835, with a larger number present than had ever before collected at any one time. Six hundred and twenty-two members divided on the question whether Sir Charles Manners-Sutton should be re-elected, or the Right Honorable James Abercromby be chosen to fill the chair. The latter was elected by ten majority.

The king opened the session on February 24th. His speech expressed his reliance on the caution and circumspection which would be exercised in altering laws which affected extensive and complicated interests, and were interwoven with ancient usages; and that, in supplying that which was defective, or renovating that which was impaired, the common object would be to strengthen the foundations of those institutions in church and state, which are the inheritance and birthright of the people.

In the House of Commons, Lord Morpeth proposed an amendment to the address in answer to the speech from the throne, which was carried by a majority of seven in a House of six hundred and nine members. Thus was the ministry twice beaten—in the election of Speaker and in this last vote.

“It is my first duty,” said Sir Robert Peel, “to maintain the post which has been confided to me; to stand by the trust which I did not seek, but which I could not decline. Receive, at least, the measures which I propose; amend them if they are defective; extend them if they fall short of your expectations. I offer you reduced estimates, improvements in civil jurisprudence, reform of ecclesiastical law, the settlement of the tithe question in Ireland, the commutation of tithe in England, the removal of any abuse in the church, and the redress of those grievances of which the dissenters have any just ground to complain. I offer you these specific measures; I offer also to

advance, soberly and cautiously, it is true, in the path of progressive improvement."

Lord John Russell, on April 7th, proposed the resolution, "That it is the opinion of this House that no measure upon the subject of the tithes in Ireland can lead to satisfactory and final adjustment which does not embody the temporalities of the Church in Ireland." This was adopted by a majority of twenty-seven, and that majority was fatal to the ministry. On the following day the Duke of Wellington, in the House of Lords, stated that in consequence of the resolution in the House of Commons, the ministry had tendered their resignation. Sir Robert made a similar explanation in the Commons.

Ten days later, Viscount Melbourne, in moving the adjournment of the House of Lords, stated that the king had been pleased to appoint him First Lord of the Treasury, and that he and his friends who had taken office had received from his Majesty the seals of their respective departments; that the other House would adjourn until May 12th, to enable ministers to have their re-election.

The great measure of the session was proposed on June 5th by Lord John Russell. He asked, on behalf of his Majesty's government, leave to bring in a bill for the regulation of municipal corporations in England and Wales. After a very long and protracted debate, and many alterations, the bill passed on September 7, 1835.

One of the most important measures toward a more complete system of national statistics was brought forward by Lord John Russell in the session of 1836. On February 12th he introduced the bill for the general registration of births, deaths, and marriages; at the same time he brought in a bill for amending the law regulating the marriages of dissenters, connected with the establishment of General Civil Registration.

On June 20th was passed a bill reducing the newspaper stamp from fourpence to one penny on each paper published; also the reduction of the duty on paper.

Parliament was opened by commission on January 31, 1837. The most important passage in the royal speech was in reference to the state of the province of Lower Canada.

Few of the proceedings of Parliament during the session, which circumstances had rendered short, acquired a legislative completion.

Lord John Russell proposed the government plan for introducing poor-laws into Ireland. The dissolution of Parliament interrupted the progress of the bill.

On June 9, 1837, a bulletin issued from Windsor Castle informing a loyal and really affectionate people that the king was ill. From the 12th they were regularly issued until the 19th, when the malady, inflammation of the lungs, had greatly increased, and on that day he received the sacrament at the hands of the Archbishop of Canterbury.

On Tuesday, June 20th, the last of these official documents was issued. His Majesty had expired that morning at two o'clock.

William died in the seventy-second year of his age and seventh year of his reign, leaving no legitimate issue. He was succeeded by his niece, Alexandrina Victoria.

By his mistress, Mrs. Jordan, he had five sons and five daughters, who were known by the name of FitzClarence. The eldest son was created Earl of Munster, and was a major-general in the army; the other sons held high positions, and the daughters married among the aristocracy.

CONTEMPORARY RULERS.—France: Louis Philippe; Russia: Nicholas I.; Prussia: Frederick William III.; Austria: Francis I., Ferdinand; Spain: Ferdinand VII., Isabella.



Victoria—A.D. 1837.

Born at Kensington Palace, May 24, 1819.

Succeeded to the throne, June 20, 1837.

Crowned, June 28, 1838.

Married, February 10, 1840, to his late Royal Highness, Francis Albert Augustus Charles Emmanuel, Prince Consort, Duke of Saxony, Prince of Coburg and Gotha, who was born August 26, 1819; died December 14, 1861.
Issue :

1. Her Royal Highness Victoria Adelaide Mary Louisa, Princess Royal, born November 21, 1840; married, January 25, 1858, to his Imperial Highness the Crown Prince of Germany, and had issue :

Frederick William V. A., born January 27, 1859; V. E. A. Charlotte, born July 24, 1860, married February 18, 1878, to Hereditary Prince of Saxe Meiningen, issue, a daughter; A. W. Henry, born August 14, 1862; Francis, born September 15, 1864, died June 18, 1866; Victoria, born April 12, 1866; Waldemar, born February 10, 1868, died March 27, 1879; Sophia Dorothea, born June 14, 1870; and Margaret Beatrice, born April 22, 1872.

2. His Royal Highness Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, Duke of Saxony, Cornwall, and Rothesay, Earl of Dublin, etc., born November 9, 1841; married, March 10, 1863, to the Princess Alexandra Caroline Mary Charlotte Louisa Julia (born December 1, 1844), eldest daughter of the King of Denmark. Issue :

Albert Victor Christian Edward, born January 8, 1864; George Frederick Ernest Albert, born June 3, 1865; Louise Victoria Alexandra Dagmar, born February 20, 1867; Victoria Alexandra Olga Mary, born July 6, 1868; Mand Charlotte Mary Victoria, born November 26, 1869; and Alexander J. C. A., born April 6, died April 7, 1871.

3. Her Royal Highness Alice Maud Mary, born April 25, 1843; married July 1, 1862, to his Royal Highness Louis IV., Grand Duke of Hesse Darmstadt (born September 12, 1837); died December 14, 1878. Issue :
Victoria Alberta E. M. M., born April 5, 1863; Elizabeth A. Louise Alice, born November 1, 1864; Irene Marie Louise, born July 11, 1866; Ernest Louis, born November 25, 1868; Frederick William, born October 7, 1870, died June 29, 1873; Victoria A. H. L. B., born June 6, 1872; and Mary Victoria Feodore Leopoldine, born May 24, 1874, died November 15, 1878.
4. His Royal Highness Alfred Ernest Albert, Duke of Edinburgh, born August 6, 1844; Rear Admiral Royal Navy; married, January 23, 1874, to the Grand Duchess Marie of Russia. Issue :
Alfred Alexander William Ernest Albert, born October 15, 1874; Marie A. V., born October 29, 1875; Victoria Melita, born November 25, 1876; and A. L. Olga Victoria, born September 1, 1878.
5. Her Royal Highness Helena Augusta Victoria, born May 25, 1846; married July 5, 1866, to Prince Frederick Christian Charles Augustus of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg. Issue :
Christian Victor, born April 14, 1867; Albert John, born February 26, 1869; Victoria Louise, born May 3, 1870; Franziska, born August 14, 1872; and Harold, born May 12, died May 19, 1876.
6. Her Royal Highness Louise Caroline Alberta, born March 18, 1848; married March 21, 1871, to John, Marquis of Lorne, Governor-General of Canada.
7. His Royal Highness Arthur William Patrick Albert, Duke of Connaught, born May 1, 1850; Lieutenant-Colonel Rifle Brigade, September 27, 1876; married, March 13, 1879, to Princess Louisa Margaret, daughter of Prince Frederick Charles of Prussia.
8. His Royal Highness Leopold George Duncan Albert, born April 7, 1853.
9. Her Royal Highness Beatrice Mary Victoria Feodore, born April 14, 1857.

ALEXANDRINA VICTORIA, Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, and first Empress of India, born at Kensington Palace, May 24, 1819, was the only child of Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III. and his wife, Mary Victoria Louisa of Saxe Coburg Saalfeld, relict of the hereditary Prince of Leiningen.

Her father died January 23, 1820. Neither George IV. nor his brothers, the Duke of York or William IV., had surviving legitimate issue. She became heir to the throne on the accession of William in 1830, and her education was intrusted to the Duchess of Northumberland.

On the death of her uncle, William IV., without issue, June 20, 1837, the crown of England and Hanover, which had been worn by the same person since the succession of George I. in

1714, were separated, the former devolving on the Princess Victoria, and the latter, by virtue of the Salic law, falling to her uncle, Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, fifth son of George III.

It was five o'clock in the morning of June 20th when the doors of Kensington Palace, where the princess resided with her mother, were opened to the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chamberlain, and Sir Henry Hallford, physician to the late king. They had come to inform the young princess that she was queen.

The Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne, had an audience at nine o'clock. At eleven the state apartments of the palace were filled with members of the Privy Council of the late king; peers, archbishops, and the Lord Mayor of London; her uncles, the Duke of Cumberland, now king of Hanover, and the Duke of Sussex.

The doors of the Council Chamber were opened, and Queen Victoria, entering with her mother, the Duchess of Kent, pale but perfectly self-possessed, took her seat at the head of the council table. The Lord Chancellor administered the oath prescribed for the sovereign's accession; the Privy Councillors took the oaths of allegiance and supremacy.

A declaration having been prepared for her by Lord Melbourne, was delivered by the young queen in a clear and imposing manner:

"The severe and afflicting loss which the nation has sustained by the death of His Majesty, my beloved uncle, has devolved upon me the duty of administering the government of this empire. This awful responsibility is imposed upon me so suddenly, and at so early a period of my life, that I should feel myself utterly oppressed by the burden were I not sustained by the hope that Divine Providence, which has called me to this work, will give me the strength for the performance of it, and that I shall find in the purity of my intentions and in my zeal for the public welfare that support and those resources which usually belong to a more mature age and to long experience."

The queen's demeanor impressed every one who was present,

not only with profound admiration, but with a confident hope of a glorious future.

On the same day Queen Victoria was proclaimed in different parts of the city.

On the 17th of July the queen went in state to Parliament. In the speech from the throne her majesty stated that amongst the useful measures which Parliament had brought to maturity, she regarded with peculiar interest the amendment of the criminal code, and the reduction of the number of capital punishments. She hailed this mitigation of the severity of the law as an auspicious commencement of her reign. "It will be my care," she said, "to strengthen our institutions, civil and ecclesiastical, by discreet improvement wherever improvement is required, and to do all in my power to compose and allay animosity and discord."

The ministry Queen Victoria found at her accession was one whose general character was in harmony with the opinions in which she had been educated. Viscount Melbourne, the First Lord of the Treasury, was at her hand to guide and assist her in the discharge of the technical duties of her great office. During the elections, which were over early in August, the party contests assumed a tone not entirely constitutional; for the adherents of the ministry alleged to their constituents that in supporting them they were showing their loyalty to their queen, while the opposite party maintained that her Majesty had only passively adopted the administration of her uncle which she had found established. But there was one feeling predominant—that of a deep and growing attachment to the person of the young sovereign.

On November 15, 1837, the new parliament met. Mr. Abercromby was re-elected Speaker without opposition. On the 20th the queen in person opened the session. The most important paragraph in her Majesty's speech was, "I recommend to your serious consideration the state of the Province of Lower Canada." The discontent broke out the previous year, and had now assumed a regular rebellion, but it was put down the following year under the government of the Earl of Durham, concessions having been made by the imperial govern-

ment and responsible government being granted to the province.

The coronation of the queen took place at Westminster Abbey on June 28, 1838. The splendor which attended the coronation of George IV. was to some extent dispensed with.

When Parliament was opened by the queen on February 5, 1839, a passage in her speech had reference to domestic affairs. Her Majesty said: "I have observed with pain the persevering efforts which have been made in some parts of the country to excite my subjects to disobedience and resistance to the law, and to recommend dangerous and illegal practices."

Chartism, which for ten years past occasionally agitated the country, had then began to take root.

On January 10, 1840, the penny-postage system first came into operation, owing to the efforts of Rowland Hill and Mr. Wallace.

On the 16th of January, of this year, the queen opened Parliament. The first announcement in her speech was, "Since you were last assembled I have declared my intention of allying myself in marriage with the Prince Albert of Saxe Coburg and Gotha. I humbly implore that the divine blessing may prosper this union and render it conducive to the interests of my people as well as to my own domestic happiness, and it will be to me a source of the most lively satisfaction to find the resolution I have taken approved by my Parliament."

The preliminary measures of the legislature for the naturalization of Prince Albert, and for granting him an annuity, produced some discussion; first, upon the subject of precedence, and next, as to the amount of the annual sum to be granted. The one question was settled by omitting from the bill of naturalization all mention of precedence, the other by reducing the ministerial proposition of an annuity from £50,000 to £30,000. The distresses of the country fully justified the decision of the majority, who supported the smaller sum.

The marriage took place on February 10, 1840, and it was celebrated by general festivities throughout the country. In June an attempt was made to assassinate the queen by one Oxford, who was afterward proved to be insane, and was imprisoned.

Parliament opened January 26, 1841. This session was made memorable by the defeat of the Whig ministry, after ten years of power, and by the unexpected adoption of the principles of "Free-Trade" by that government, after a long period of indecision, if not of hostility to any vital changes, especially in regard to the corn laws. On the question of sugar duties the ministers were defeated by a majority of thirty-six. On May 27th Sir Robert Peel moved, in the House, "That her Majesty's ministers do not sufficiently possess the confidence of the House of Commons to enable them to carry through the House measures which they deem of essential importance to the public welfare." This resolution was carried; ayes, 313; nays, 312.

On June 7th Lord John Russell stated that the ministry had determined to appeal to the country, and on the 22d the Parliament was prorogued by the queen, and dissolved by proclamation the following day.

When the new Parliament met, August 19th, it had been ascertained, with tolerable accuracy, that the results of the elections were wholly unfavorable to the continued existence of the ministry. What was called the conservative principle was not only triumphant over the free trade principle, boldly proclaimed at the last hour by the Whigs, but many of their former supporters, now known as the radical party, were either distinctly hostile toward the ministry, or very lukewarm in their support.

The parliamentary trial of strength was close at hand. Mr. Charles Shaw-Lefevre was chosen Speaker without opposition. The queen did not open the Parliament in person; the speech was read by the Lord Chancellor.

In the House of Commons an amendment to the address was moved by Mr. Stuart Wortley, to the effect that the expenditure having for several years exceeded the annual income, the House was convinced of the necessity of adopting measures for the purpose of remedying so great an evil; "that your Majesty's government should possess the confidence of this House, and of the country, and respectfully to represent to your Majesty that that confidence is not reposed in the present advisers

of your Majesty." The debate on the address was continued four nights.

Sir Robert Peel, in concluding his address, said, "If I accept office, it shall be by walking in the open light, and in the direct paths of the constitution; if I exercise power, it shall be upon my conception—perhaps imperfect, perhaps mistaken, but my sincere conception of public duty. That power I will not hold unless I can hold it consistently with the maintenance of my own opinions, and that power I will relinquish the moment I am satisfied that I am not supported in the maintenance of them by the confidence of the House and of the people of this country." On August 27th the House divided on Mr. Wortley's amendment; in a House of six hundred and twenty-nine members, the government was in a minority of ninety-one. Her Majesty's answer to the amended address of the House of Commons was—"Ever anxious to listen to the advice of Parliament, I will take immediate measures for the formation of a new administration."

The resignation of ministers was announced in both Houses August 30, 1841.

The Afghan war, that commenced in 1839, was supposed to be over. Dost Mahomed had fled beyond the Indian Caucasus; the country appeared not only subjugated to the new government, but tranquil and satisfied. There was a disposition to withdraw the greater part of the forces, but it was finally determined that the first division of the Bengal Infantry, with the 13th Queen's Regiment, should remain in Cabul, and that Ghuznee and Jellalabad should be occupied by native regiments.

Dost Mahomed had again made his appearance, and had fought a gallant battle with the British cavalry, in which he obtained a partial victory. Despairing, however, of his power effectually to resist the British arms, he wrote to Cabul, and delivered himself up to the Envoy, Sir Wm. McNaghten, claiming the protection of his government. He was sent to India, where a place of residence was assigned to him, and a revenue of £30,000. In September and October the direction of affairs at Cabul was wholly in the hands of the Envoy. On

the night of November 1st there was a meeting of the Afghan chiefs, who banded together to make common cause against the English. A rising took place, and the British were attacked without warning, and several were murdered. From November 2d to December 23d the position of the British became more perilous. There were four thousand five hundred British troops in the cantonments and six hundred in the Bala Hissar. McNaghten, at the beginning of December, urged General Elphinstone to retire from the cantonments, and place the remainder of the troops in that fortress, in which they would be in a position to overawe the populace in Cabul.

The last alternative was to march at once to India, and, with the desperate courage of the lion at bay, turn upon their surrounding foes. General Sale and General Nott were expected with reinforcements, but they were themselves hemmed in by enemies.

The troops were threatened with starvation; the camp followers were living on the carcases of camels. Negotiations were going on with the Afghan chiefs for the safe retreat of the army, and for a supply of provisions. They were protracted from day to day, the Afghans requiring as a first condition that the forts in the neighborhood should be given up. They were evacuated, and then the enemy had them at their mercy. The winter was setting in; on December 18th snow began to fall. On the 22d a proposal from Akbar Khan, the son of Dost Mahomed, for a conference was accepted, and McNaghten, with three friends, Lawrence, Trevor, and Mackenzie, went out accordingly about six hundred yards, when McNaghten was treacherously murdered.

On the 26th, Major Pottinger, who had taken the place of the unfortunate McNaghten, agreed to capitulate, and a treaty was ratified, that all the guns should be left behind except six, that all the treasure should be given up, and forty thousand rupees paid in bills, to be negotiated upon the spot, and that four hostages should be detained to insure the evacuation of Jellalabad.

On the morning of January 6, 1842, a day of intense cold, the army, consisting of four thousand five hundred fighting

men, and twelve thousand camp followers, began to move out of the cantonments, and continued their march to the Pass of Khoord, losing men every day from hunger, cold, and the attacks of the tribes of the country through which they passed.

The disorganized force entered the pass, which for five miles is shut up by precipitous mountains, with a torrent rushing down the centre, and here they were attacked by the unrelenting Ghilzyes, who shot down the fugitives without a chance of their being resisted or restrained.

In this pass three thousand men are said to have fallen. On the 13th, a sentry on the ramparts of Jellalabad saw a solitary horseman struggling on toward the fort. He was brought in, wounded and exhausted. The one man who was left to tell the frightful tale of the retreat from Cabul was Dr. Brydon.

On August 29, 1841, the Chinese war was brought to a successful termination. A lasting peace was agreed to. China was to pay Great Britain twenty-one millions of dollars as indemnity for the war, payable in four years, and the ports of Canton, Amoy, Foo-choo-foo, Ning-po, and Shanghai were to be thrown open to the British.

The ministerial arrangements of Sir Robert Peel were completed; the members of the House of Commons who had accepted office were re-elected.

The Prime Minister asked for the confidence of the House whilst he considered the mode in which the great financial evil of the previous seven years could be removed. Being pressed upon the subject of the corn laws, he said he should have thought it reasonable that, on returning to power after a lapse of ten years, he should have not been called upon within a month to propose an alteration of the law in respect to the trade in corn, and on October 7th Parliament was prorogued.

On Tuesday, November 9th, the *London Gazette* extraordinary announced the birth that morning of a prince, and on the 8th day of the next month the queen created the young prince Duke of Saxony, Cornwall, and Rothesay, Prince of Wales. On January 25, 1842, the baptism was performed at St. George's Chapel, Windsor, the King of Prussia, who had visited England for the special occasion, being one of the sponsors.

After four months of anxious speculation on the part of the people as to the course that the ministry would pursue upon the two great questions of finance and trade, Parliament was opened by the queen in person on February 3, 1842. She was accompanied by the King of Prussia and a brilliant suite. In the speech from the throne the queen said: "The state of the finances and of the expenditure of the country is recommended to the immediate attention of Parliament;" and so also was recommended "the state of the laws which affect the importation of corn and of other articles, the product of other countries." There was no amendment to the address. It was announced by Sir Robert Peel that on the 9th he should move for a committee of the whole House for the purpose of considering the laws which affected the import of foreign corn, and a bill was introduced in which a more liberal method of fixing the averages on the value of corn was arranged on the principle of a sliding scale of duties. After a debate of four days it passed the House of Commons on April 7th.

In a tariff of twelve hundred articles, Sir Robert proposed to make seven hundred and fifty reductions, and to meet the deficiency he proposed an income tax upon all incomes above £150 a year of sevenpence in the pound, all of which were carried through. Important alterations were also made in the Courts of Bankruptcy.

While Parliament was sitting, two assaults were made upon the person of the queen; one on May 30th by John Francis, twenty years of age, who fired a pistol at the queen as she was returning to Buckingham Palace. He was transported for life. On July 3d a deformed youth, named John Bean, presented a pistol at her, but being seized by a bystander, was prevented from firing it.

On July 12th Sir Robert Peel brought in a bill for the better protection of the queen's person. He proposed that any party not actually designing to take away the queen's life, but intending to hurt or alarm her, should be subject to transportation for a term not exceeding seven years.

On August 12th the queen prorogued Parliament. In this year Lord Ashburton proceeded to the United States as a special

commissioner, and concluded a treaty determining the boundary of Canada and the State of Maine.

On February 2, 1843, Parliament was opened by commission. There was no amendment proposed to the address. An anti-corn law league had been formed, and Mr. Cobden was agitating a repeal of the corn laws. At the beginning of May, the agitation in Ireland for the repeal of the union had become sufficiently formidable to make a declaration of the intentions of the government a matter of imperative necessity.

In the House of Lords the Duke of Wellington, and in the House of Commons Sir Robert Peel, expressed a determination to abide by the principle of the joint address of both Houses of 1834—"to maintain unimpaired and undisturbed the legislative union between Great Britain and Ireland."

Parliament was prorogued August 24th, the queen in her speech noticed "the persevering efforts to stir up discontent and disaffection in Ireland," and expressed her earnest desire to administer the government of that part of her kingdom in a spirit of strict justice and impartiality, and she also expressed her firm determination to maintain the legislative union.

On October 14th Mr. O'Connell and his associates were arrested on charges of conspiracy, sedition, and unlawful assembling.

Parliament opened February 1, 1844. The queen, in her speech, alluded to the affairs in Ireland, and said, "It is my earnest desire to co-operate with Parliament in the adoption of all such measures as might tend to improve the social condition of Ireland, and to develop the natural resources of that part of the United Kingdom." Lord John Russell in the Commons, and the Marquis of Normanby in the Lords, brought forward motions on the state of Ireland, both of which were thrown out by large majorities.

Mr. O'Connell was tried before the Court of Queens Bench, in Dublin, and found guilty, and on May 30th he was sentenced to be imprisoned for twelve months, and to be fined £2,000.

Sir Robert Peel was enabled to state to the House, that it was now admitted that there was a material improvement in some branches of manufacture, and with regard to the revenue, he was enabled to state, that the course of deficiency had been

suspended, and that the revenues of the current year would be amply sufficient to meet the existing wants of the government; and he declared, that he had not contemplated and did not contemplate, an alteration in the present corn laws.

On September 5, 1844, O'Connell, on appeal to the House of Lords, had his sentence reversed, and he was discharged from confinement.

When Parliament was opened by the queen, on February 4, 1845, the improved condition of the country was a fertile subject of her Majesty's congratulation, she said: "Increased activity pervades almost every branch of manufacture; trade and commerce have extended at home and abroad." At this period the income tax was about to expire, but her Majesty thought it might be expedient to continue its operation for a further period; the income tax had produced about £5,000,000, it was in many respects an objectionable tax, and if not wholly abolished, there was ample room to reduce the amount of the impost one-half.

The minister had a great policy to carry into effect. This partial experiment on free trade had prepared him to make a bolder experiment, on the principle that the surest way to improve the condition of the great body of the people, was to remove those taxes upon larger branches of industry which not only interfered with their extension, but placed many of the comforts of life beyond the reach of the humbler classes; "besides, by removing the taxes," he said, "you make a great decrease in the expenses of collection." He proposed to abolish all duties on exports, including the duty on coal and glass.

The session of Parliament was prorogued by the queen, on August 9th, and on that day her Majesty and Prince Albert embarked at Woolwich for Germany.

The question which now principally occupied the attention of the public was that of the corn laws, and this was now approaching its solution through an unexpected dispensation of Providence. The summer of 1845 was wet and cold; it was plain that the harvest would be deficient, not only in England but throughout Europe.

In addition to this calamity another appeared hitherto unknown: disease invaded the potato crop, and the root became

unfit to eat. A famine in Ireland, where the potato formed the staple food, was now imminent, and the alarm in Scotland was great, and steadily increasing.

The Anti-corn-law League redoubled its agitation and promised to be one of the most formidable movements of modern times, and large sums of money were subscribed in all quarters in aid of its objects. Lord Morpeth joined it; Lord John Russell addressed a letter to his constituents in the city, in which, amid taunts directed against Sir Robert Peel, he abandoned his scheme for a fixed duty on corn, and declared himself the advocate of free trade. Peel himself had come to the conclusion that a duty could no longer be upheld, and he had brought over the majority of the Cabinet to the same opinion; but he felt that he and his colleagues were not the persons to carry a measure which they had always opposed. On December 11th, the ministers resigned, but Peel announced to the queen his intention to support, in his private capacity, any minister she might appoint who should propose to do away with the duty upon corn. Lord John Russell was now sent for by the queen; he failed in forming a Cabinet, and the previous one was restored.

On November 6, 1845, Sir Robert Peel proposed to the Cabinet to issue immediately an order in council, remitting the duty on grain in bond to one shilling per quarter; opening the ports to the temporary admission of all grain to a smaller rate of duty. He further proposed to call Parliament together on November 27th, to ask indemnity, and to declare an intention of submitting immediately after the recess, a modification of the existing corn laws. Three only of his colleagues gave their support to the measure. Differences thus occurring in the Cabinet, Sir Robert Peel repaired to Osborne, on December 5th, and humbly solicited the queen to release him from duties which he could no longer discharge with advantage to her Majesty's service.

The queen then informed Sir Robert it was her intention to propose to Lord John Russell the formation of a government. Lord John Russell was at Edinburgh when he received the queen's summons. He went to her Majesty with the conviction that he could not accept the great trust now offered to him; he

felt that, his party being in a manifest minority in the Commons, he could not properly undertake the formation of a government. But the offer of Sir Robert Peel to give his assistance in a private capacity toward the settlement of the corn law question determined Lord John Russell to depart from this resolution, and on December 18th he informed her Majesty that he was ready to undertake the formation of a government. In consequence, Sir Robert Peel was invited by her Majesty to a parting interview on his relinquishment of office. On entering the room at Windsor, on December 20th, her Majesty said to him very graciously, "So far from taking leave of you, Sir Robert, I must require of you to withdraw your resignation and to remain in my service." Lord John Russell had written to the queen on the morning of that day that he had found it impossible to form an administration.

On January 26, 1846, when the queen opened Parliament in person, the royal speech necessarily alluded to the failure of the potato crop in Ireland, and to the means that had been adopted for alleviating the sufferings caused by this calamity. Her Majesty, it was declared, had had great satisfaction in giving her consent to the measures for the repeal of prohibitory and the relaxation of protective duties. The prosperous state of the revenue, the increased demand for labor, and the general improvement which had taken place in the internal condition of the country, were strong testimonies in favor of the course that had been pursued.

In the closing part of Sir Robert's speech on the debate of the address, he said: "I will not, sir, undertake to direct the course of the vessel of state by the observations taken in 1842. I will reserve to myself the marking out of that course; and I must, for the public interest, claim for myself the unfettered power of judging of those measures which I conceive will be better for the country to propose. Sir, I do not wish to be minister of England, but while I have the high honor of holding that office, I am determined to hold it by no servile tenure. I will only hold that office upon the condition of being unshackled by any other obligations than those of consulting the public interests and of providing for the public safety."

On January 27th the premier developed his plan of financial and commercial policy, stating the reduction of duties on almost every article on the list of the existing tariff. The debate continuing to February 16th, on that night Sir Robert Peel closed his speech with the following words: "This night is to decide between the policy of continued relaxation of restriction or the return to restraint and prohibition. This night you will select the motto which is to indicate the commercial policy of England. Shall it be 'advance' or 'recede' ? Which is the fitter motto for this great empire ? Survey our position ; consider the advantages which God and nature has given us, and the destiny for which we are intended. We stand on the confines of Western Europe, the chief connecting link between the Old World and the New. The discoveries of science and improvement of navigation have brought us within ten days of St. Petersburg, and will soon bring us within ten days of New York. We have an extent of coast greater in proportion to our population and the area of our land than any other great nation, securing to us maritime strength and superiority. Iron and coal, the sinews of manufacture, give us advantages over every rival in the great competition of industry. In ingenuity, in skill, in energy, we are inferior to none. Our national character, the free institutions under which we live, the liberty of thought and action, an unshackled press spreading the knowledge of every discovery and of every advance of science, combine with our natural and physical advantages to place us at the head of those nations which profit by the free interchange of their products. And is this the country to shrink from competition ? Is this the country which can only flourish in the sickly artificial atmosphere of prohibition ? Is this the country to stand shivering on the bank of exposure to the healthful breezes of competition ?"

The debate continued on both the customs and corn bills until June 25th, after many amendments and motions, and on the 26th received the royal assent. By the corn importation act that scale of duties as proposed by the government on January 27th was adopted, viz. : when wheat was under forty-eight shillings per quarter the duty was to be ten shillings, at every

rise of one shilling per quarter the duty was to be one shilling lower, until wheat should reach fifty-four shillings and the duty at four shillings, after which the duty should not further change. This arrangement was to continue until February 1, 1849, after which day a duty upon grain of one shilling per quarter and fourpence half-penny upon flour and meal was to be levied for purely statistical purposes.

A debate commenced in the Commons on a bill for the protection of life in Ireland. On a division, the government were beaten by a majority of seventy-three votes against them, and on June 29th the ministry of Sir Robert Peel resigned, on which the House adjourned until July 3d.

On July 6, 1846, Lord John Russell, as First Lord of the Treasury, and the other members of the administration, were sworn into office.

The settlement of the Oregon question was announced to the House of Lords on July 29th, by the Earl of Aberdeen. This settlement relieved the nation from much anxiety.

On February 10th was fought the great battle of Sohraon, in which the Sikhs lost thirteen thousand men and sixty-seven guns. The British loss was about two thousand killed and wounded. On the 20th, Lahore, the capital, was occupied. Dhuleep Singh, the young Maharajah, was reinstated in the city, and a treaty was signed by which he was continued in the relation of a sovereign friendly with the British government.

In July, 1847, Parliament was dissolved. In September and October there had been great commercial distress. Mercantile houses in London of the highest eminence suspended their payments. Corresponding disasters occurred in Manchester, Liverpool, and Glasgow. All the usual accommodation in the money market was at an end, and by the end of October the depression had become a great panic. A deputation of bankers and merchants waited on the Prime Minister to confer on the necessity of some remedial measures, who addressed a letter to the Governor of the Bank of England, recommending that institution to enlarge the amount of their discounts and advances upon approved security, charging a high rate of interest. The letter added, "if this course should lead to any infringement of law, her Majesty's govern-

ment will be prepared to propose to Parliament a Bill of Indemnity." The recommendation was acceded to, and there was a partial restoration of confidence.

The new parliament was opened November 18, 1847. Mr. Shaw-Lefevre was re-elected Speaker.

On the 23d the royal speech was delivered by commission. It announced that although the course recommended by ministers to the Bank of England might have led to an infringement of the law, the law had not been infringed, and that now the alarm had subsided, and Parliament was adjourned until February 3, 1848. After the meeting of the House on February 24th, intelligence was received of the abdication and flight of King Louis Philippe and of the proclamation of the republic in France.

Chartism had slumbered in England since 1839. The principles of socialism, which had been diligently propagated in France for the past ten years, gradually made their way in a small extent to England, and riots took place in all the principal cities, and they were not put down until severe measures were resorted to.

Parliament was opened February 1, 1849, by the queen. She said: "I observe with satisfaction that this portion of the United Kingdom has remained tranquil amidst the convulsions which have disturbed so many parts of Europe. It is with pride and thankfulness that I advert to the loyal spirit of my people, and that attachment to our institutions which has animated them during a period of commercial difficulty, deficient production of food, and political revolution. I look to the protection of Almighty God for favor in our continued progress, and I trust you will assist me in upholding the fabric of the Constitution, founded as it is upon the principles of freedom and justice."

The session of Parliament of 1850 was distinguished by the establishment of a policy of self-government for the colonies which had already been tried in Canada. On June 29th of this year Sir Robert Peel was killed by a fall from his horse near the Green Park, London. The death of no English statesman had ever produced a greater feeling of grief throughout the

land than was evinced at the irreparable loss which the nation had sustained.

The country was excited this year by a bull published by Pope Pius IX. establishing a Roman Catholic hierarchy in England. The following passage in reference to it occurred in the queen's speech :

"The recent assumption of certain ecclesiastical titles conferred by a foreign power has excited strong feelings in this country, and large bodies of my subjects have presented addresses to me expressing attachment to the throne, and praying that such assumption should be resisted. I have assured them of my resolution to maintain the rights of my crown and the independence of the nation against all encroachment, from whatever quarter it may proceed, and it will be for you to consider the measures which will be laid before you on the subject." On February 7th the Papal Aggression Bill was introduced by the Premier, which, after a long discussion, passed both Houses by a very large majority.

On May 1, 1851, the first Great Exhibition was opened by the queen and Prince Albert in Hyde Park, and became a popular and successful undertaking.

On December 2, 1851, occurred the *coup d'état* which placed Louis Napoleon on the throne of France, and ultimately caused the fall of Lord John Russell's ministry. It appeared that Lord Palmerston, the Foreign Secretary, was in the habit of acting on his own responsibility in his department, and that this gave great dissatisfaction to the queen. The English ambassador in Paris had been instructed to abstain from all action in the internal affairs of that country ; but Lord Palmerston was alleged to have held a conversation with the French ambassador inconsistent with those instructions, giving the moral approbation of England, without the consent of the crown, to the acts of Napoleon. He was succeeded in the Foreign Office by the Earl Granville. Soon after the ministry resigned, February, 1852.

The queen sent for Lord Derby, who succeeded in forming a cabinet, and a considerable number of useful local measures were passed during the remainder of the session, which was

prorogued by the queen in person on July 1, 1852. The following day Parliament was dissolved.

The new parliament assembled November 4, 1852. Mr. Charles Shaw-Lefevre was re-elected Speaker without opposition. The royal speech was delivered by the queen in person on the 11th, when her Majesty announced the existence of the most amicable relations with all foreign powers.

The session was occupied principally with commercial matters and financial questions. With regard to the latter, the majority of the House were at issue with the government, and the ministry were defeated by nineteen votes, on which they resigned.

A coalition between the Whigs and Peelites was next tried, with the Earl of Aberdeen as Prime Minister, after which the House adjourned until February 10, 1853.

On September 14, 1852, died at Walmer Castle, Arthur, Duke of Wellington, in the eighty-fourth year of his age. No Englishman ever received so many honors from his country. He was one of the greatest and most successful warriors of his time, and his civil career was scarcely less splendid.

Trouble was brewing between Russia and Turkey concerning the protectorate of the Holy Places, and on October 28, 1853, hostilities commenced between the troops of those nations. This was the beginning of what afterward resulted in the Crimean war, between England, France, Italy, and Turkey, on the one side, and Russia on the other, and which continued until the fall of Sebastopol.

On February 13, 1854, Count Nesselrode notified the ambassadors of France and England at St. Petersburg that Baron Brunnow and M. de Kisseleff had quitted London and Paris, and that diplomatic relations were suspended between Russia and the Western Powers. The two ministers shortly afterward took their departure.

Before declaring war the Western Powers had recourse to one more step—a step that can hardly be termed peaceful, but one which placed them in the right, and showed Russia in the wrong. They determined to summon Russia to evacuate the Principalities within a given time, and they spared no pains to induce Austria and Prussia to support the summons.

The summons was intrusted to a special messenger, and declared that, unless Russia ordered Prince Gortschakoff to retire from the principalities at once, and to complete the evacuation by April 30th, England and France would consider that equivalent to a declaration of war. The bearer of this missive was to wait at St. Petersburg six days for an answer, and no longer. Consul Michele was then in charge of the English interests, and on the last day allowed for the answer, was requested by Count Nesselrode, the Russian Foreign Minister, to call upon him. "On entering the room," writes the Consul, "his excellency's greeting was of the most friendly description. He said, 'I have taken his Majesty's commands with reference to Lord Clarendon's note, and the emperor *does not think it becoming to make any reply to it ;*'" and after the consul repeated the reply, in case of any mistake, he again asked the Count if that was all he had to say. He replied, "Yes, that is the answer I wish you to convey to your government." And so after this singular scene at the Russian Foreign Office, exit peace and enter war. In the meantime, preparations for war were going on in England. A fleet of forty-four ships of war, under Sir Charles Napier, was despatched to the Baltic. Three battalions of guards and several regiments of the line had embarked for Malta, and the Mediterranean fleet was largely augmented.

On March 27, 1854, Captain Blackwood, the queen's messenger, returned with the Czar's negative defiance. The queen sent a message to Parliament, stating that all the endeavors of her government to preserve peace had failed, and that she relied on the zeal of her Parliament to support her in protecting the dominions of the Sultan from Russian encroachments.

On the following day war was declared, and on March 31st both Houses agreed to an address, recording the aggressions of Russia, and expressing a firm determination to resist them. On April 3d nearly all the members of both Houses waited on her Majesty at Buckingham Palace, with their answer to her message.

On April 11th the Czar published his declaration of war, in which he declared that Russia took up arms for no worldly in-

terests, but for the Christian faith. On the 21st, Odessa was bombarded by the allied fleet, as a punishment for the forts of that city having fired on a boat of H. M. S. *Furious*, while returning under a flag of truce with the English consul at that port on board, and great damage was done to the forts and shipping.

The first battle in the Crimea was fought by the French and English forces against the Russians, September 20, 1854, at the Alma, when the latter were defeated, acknowledging a loss of five thousand seven hundred men.

The bombardment of Sebastopol commenced on October 17th following, both by land and sea, but the ships had to retire without accomplishing any good result.

On October 25th, General Liprandi, commanding the Russian 12th Division, attacked the allies at Balaclava, and was signally defeated. There occurred the celebrated charge of the Light Brigade of cavalry, under Lord Cardigan. Out of six hundred and seventy who rode into the valley, there were left only one hundred and ninety-five mounted men; the charge only lasted twenty minutes, and virtually ended the battle.

Prince Menschikoff, who commanded in chief the Russian army in the Crimea, was now largely reinforced, and determined to attack the allied armies at Inkerman. On November 4th the battle of that name was fought, and the Russians were again defeated, with great loss on both sides.

General Frost and General Snow now came to the Czar's assistance, and did more harm to the allies than his best generals. On the night of November 14, 1854, a fearful storm passed over the whole land, a hurricane swept the plateau where the allies were encamped; and in a moment every tent was down; the inmates crept out, some half clothed, others nearly naked; the air was filled with chairs, tables, blankets, hats, coats, and, in fact, everything portable; heavy ambulance wagons were overturned, horses rolled over and over; immense trusses of hay were lifted from the ground. The men, in this condition, stood or lay in front of their levelled tents, without shelter, without covering; no fires could be lighted, no food cooked; all around was common desolation.

The hospital tents had shared the fate of the others; the sick and wounded lay exposed, and many died in consequence.

Generals, officers, soldiers—sick and wounded, hale and well—were in equal plight.

During the day the weather became colder, the rain turned into sleet and snow; still the brave soldiers bore up with a sober resolution, and without complaining. At Balaclava the storm was equally severe, and the loss of shipping great; twenty large transports, laden with provisions and clothing, were totally destroyed, with their entire stores.

For the next two months it was the duty of the British army to endure and wait until the country had time to put forth its strength, and relieve it from its difficulties.

Parliament met on January 23, 1855. Mr. Roebuck proposed an inquiry, by a committee of the House, into the condition of the army in the Crimea, and the conduct of the departments whose duty it was to minister to the wants of that army.

Mr. Roebuck's motion was carried by a majority of one hundred and fifty-seven, and the ministry resigned.

The queen sent for the Earl of Derby; he accepted her Majesty's commission to form a Cabinet, but was not successful. Her Majesty then called in Lord Palmerston, although only a few days had elapsed since he and others fell under a vote of censure.

Yet he was now able to construct a new ministry out of old materials: himself as Premier, Lord Panmure as Secretary of War, and Earl Granville President of the Council. Lord Canning obtained a seat in the Cabinet.

On June 28, 1855, Field-Marshal Lord Raglan, Commander-in-chief of the British army in the Crimea, died before Sebastopol, after an illness of only five days, in the 67th year of his age. He was succeeded by General Sir James Simpson.

The Russians under Prince Gortschakoff were again defeated by the allied armies at Tchernaya, on August 16, 1855, when, it is said, they lost fifteen thousand men. The siege of Sebastopol had been steadily progressing all summer, and this battle did not interrupt the progress of the siege. The Malakoff was looked upon as the key of that stronghold, and the main efforts

of the allies were directed toward it. The Russians within its lines were now suffering severely, not only from fatigue, but from a lack of water, and sometimes of food.

The sixth and last bombardment of Sebastopol began September 6, 1855. Eight hundred pieces of heavy ordnance opened on the place, and the Malakoff was soon silenced, but the bombardment continued on the Redan and other points; in the evening some ships still floating in the harbor were noticed to be on fire, and great movement appeared to and fro on a raft bridge across the harbor. The cannonade was resumed the following day, and the next. On the night of the 7th fires were noticed in several parts of the city; about two o'clock a magazine blew up. The night wore away and the morning of the 8th dawned, and with it a more tremendous bombardment than ever. At noon the place was to be stormed, and after desperate fighting the principal works were carried. About four o'clock, Gortschakoff, seeing the state of affairs, knew that all was lost, and giving orders to his generals to defend to the last the approach to the heart of the city, decided upon a retreat. With the main body of his army, he crossed over to the north side in regular order; during the night the reserves followed.

The Highland division had been moved into the advanced trenches, to be ready for an assault at daybreak. Struck by the silence of the Redan, one or two officers crept up and looked in. The enemy had fled, but fired the town before leaving. Soon batteries began to explode at irregular intervals, and later the great forts of Quarantin and Alexander blew up. *Sebastopol had fallen.*

The allies were now enabled to make ample preparations for winter. The weather was fine; their situation was widely different from that of the previous winter. They were also triumphant, and in a secure position; they had the resources of Sebastopol in wood and stone at least to defend themselves against the cold and rain, and the British army thrived under good treatment.

Parliament was opened by Queen Victoria in person on January 31, 1856. In the speech from the throne, her Majesty declared: "While determined to prosecute the war with vigor,

I deem it my duty not to decline any reasonable overture promising peace. Accordingly, when the Emperor of Austria lately offered to myself and to my august ally, the Emperor of the French, to employ his good offices with the Emperor of Russia with a view to endeavor to bring about an amicable adjustment of the matters at issue between the contending powers, I consented, in concert with my allies, to accept the offer thus made; and I have the satisfaction to inform you that certain conditions have been agreed upon, which, I hope, may prove the foundation of a general treaty of peace. Negotiations for such a treaty will shortly be opened at Paris. In conducting these negotiations I shall be careful not to lose sight of the objects for which the war was undertaken, and I shall deem it right in no degree to relax my naval and military preparations until a satisfactory peace shall be concluded."

The congress met at Paris on February 25th, and after some debate it was determined that an armistice should be concluded between the belligerents, to terminate on March 31st, unless renewed. It was also resolved that the plenipotentiaries should not divulge what occurred. On March 30, 1856, the treaty of peace was concluded and signed at Paris, to the great joy of all nations concerned in the war, and May 4th was set apart in London as a day of thanksgiving for the peace.

The speech from the throne, on the opening of the session of Parliament of 1857, stated that England and France despatched earnest remonstrances to the King of Naples in order to induce his government to mitigate the system of oppression under which his subjects groaned, and to adopt a course of policy calculated to avert the dangers which might disturb the peace which had recently been restored to Europe. These friendly remonstrances were rejected by the monarch in terms which left no alternative with the Western Powers but to withdraw their ministers from that court. This fact led to attacks from the conservatives upon the administration for their interference with the domestic affairs of another country.

On March 3, 1857, Lord Palmerston's government was defeated on a motion condemning the conduct of the war in China, conducted by Sir John Bowring, British Consul at Can-

ton, and on the 5th Lord Granville, in the Upper House, and Lord Palmerston in the Lower, announced that her Majesty's ministers had advised her to dissolve Parliament. The remaining business having been rapidly disposed of, Parliament was prorogued March 21st, and the next day dissolved by proclamation.

The new parliament met April 30th. The result of the general election showed how well grounded was the confidence with which Lord Palmerston appealed to the country, and some of his most violent opponents lost their election. The late Speaker, Mr. Shaw-Lefevre, after his long services, had been raised to the peerage as Lord Eversley, with an annuity of £4,000 a year, and Mr. John Evelyn Denison was unanimously elected Speaker in his place. The royal speech was delivered May 7th. The queen expressed her heartfelt gratification at witnessing the continued well-being and contentment of her people, and the progressive development of productive industry throughout her dominions.

The first matter of interest that came before the House was a message from the queen, announcing that a marriage had been negotiated between Prince Frederick William of Prussia and the Princess Royal, and a marriage portion of £40,000 and an annuity of £8,000 a year was voted her.

This session was distinguished by the passing of two measures of great social importance—the transfer of testamentary and matrimonial cases from the jurisdiction of the Ecclesiastical Courts, and the establishment of a new probate court and a new divorce court.

An attempt had been made on the life of the Emperor Louis Napoleon, January 14, 1858—the celebrated Orsini plot. A spirited correspondence was carried on between the governments of France and England about the right of asylum. Amicable relations were endangered, and great indignation was felt in England. The ministry brought in a bill to amend the law relating to the crimes of conspiracy and intent to murder, either within or without her Majesty's dominions, and whether the person killed or imperilled were a subject of her Majesty or not. It met with violent opposition; the government had a

majority of nineteen against them, and on February 22d Lord Palmerston announced that the ministers had tendered their resignation to her Majesty, which had been accepted, and he moved an adjournment of the House.

Lord Derby was sent for by the queen, and succeeded in forming an administration composed of Prime Minister, Earl Derby; Lord Chancellor, Lord Chelmsford; President of the Council, Marquis of Salisbury; Lord Privy Seal, Earl of Hardwicke; Walpole, Mahmesbury, and Stanley, Secretaries for the Home, Foreign, and Colonial Departments; Mr. Disraeli Chancellor of the Exchequer.

The Sepoy mutiny broke out at Meerut, forty-five miles north of Delhi, on May 17, 1857, and soon spread over a large portion of India, causing deplorable destruction of life to all the Christian population within its range. England despatched over thirty thousand troops, with some of her best generals, and after a terrible struggle, at last conquered. The mutiny was not altogether put down until January, 1859.

Parliament, at this period, effected a great reform in the government of India. An act was passed in 1858 which abolished the rule of the East India Company, and transferred the government of India to the crown. Thenceforth, instead of a Board of Directors, there was to be a Council of India and a Secretary of State, a responsible minister.

In the queen's speech, on the opening of the session of 1859, the principal mention was: "Your attention will be called to the state of the laws which regulate the representation of the people in Parliament, and I cannot doubt but that you will give to this great subject a degree of calm and impartial consideration proportionate to the magnitude of the interests involved in the result of your deliberations."

In pursuance of this announcement, Mr. Disraeli introduced a reform bill on February 28, 1859.

Lord John Russell proposed, as an amendment, "That this House is of the opinion that it is neither just nor politic to interfere in the manner proposed by this bill, without the freehold franchise as hitherto exercised in counties in England and Wales, and that no readjustment of the franchise will satisfy

this House or the country which does not provide for a greater extension of the suffrage in cities and boroughs than is contemplated in the present measure."

After a long and practical debate, the House proceeded to a division, April 1st, and it was decisive against the government by a majority of 39.

Next day Lord Derby had an audience with the queen. In the House of Lords, the same evening, he stated that the majority against him left him only the alternatives either to resign or dissolve Parliament.

According to his lordship's views, the chief mischief-maker was Lord John Russell, who from the restless energy of his disposition, had the peculiar fortune to overthrow many governments, not only of his opponents, but also of his friends; the consequence of which conduct was, that hardly a year now passed without a ministerial crisis; and if the system was persevered in, it would put an end to all government; for it inflicted injury at home, and damaged the influence abroad. One of the questions bequeathed to him by the late government, was parliamentary reform. He had, in consequence, introduced a bill to meet that question. Their lordships knew how it had been received.

After some discussion on the dissolution, the House hastened to wind up the session by disposing of the necessary business, and on April 9th Parliament was prorogued by commission, and shortly after dissolved.

The result of the general election was adverse to the government. The late Speaker, Mr. Denison, was re-elected unanimously; the session was opened June 7, 1859; the speech from the throne contained nothing remarkable, except a suggestion that the subject of parliamentary reform should be postponed until next session.

A scheme for the liberation of Italy from the Austrian dominion in the north, and Austrian influence throughout the peninsula had been arranged between Napoleon III. and Count Cavour, and was favorably considered in England, but Lord Derby showed a want of sympathy.

The debates in both Houses on the address to the queen's

speech were unusually animated. The address in the Lords was agreed to. In the Commons an amendment was moved by the Marquis of Hartington, "That the nation sympathized with the cause of freedom in Italy, and had a decided conviction that a Conservative government was not a fitting medium through which that sympathy might be conveyed. After three nights' debate, the amendment was carried by a majority of thirteen votes. In consequence of this adverse division Lord Derby announced in the House of Lords, June 19th, the resignation of the ministry. The same evening Mr. Disraeli made a similar announcement in the House of Commons.

Lord Palmerston was then called upon by her Majesty to form an administration, the queen having previously applied to Earl Granville.

The new ministers were all re-elected to their seats in the Commons, rendered vacant by their appointment to office. The following formed the new Cabinet: Lord Palmerston, Prime Minister; Lord Campbell, Chancellor; Lord Granville, President of the Council; the Duke of Argyll, Lord Privy Seal; Sir Geo. Lewis, Home Secretary; Lord John Russell, Foreign Secretary; the Duke of Newcastle, Colonial Secretary; Mr. Sidney Herbert, Secretary of War; Sir Charles Wood, Secretary of India; Mr. Gladstone, Chancellor of the Exchequer.

The session of 1860 opened January 24th, her Majesty delivering the royal speech in person.

The Italian question became the prominent topic of discussion, especially the part France had played after the war in demanding the cession of Savoy and Nice, but the discussion led to no practical result.

Great interest was felt at the opening of this session about the forthcoming financial statement of Mr. Gladstone, and the treaty of commerce with France. Both his budget and treaty passed by large majorities. The affairs of India also occupied considerable attention. On August 28th Parliament was prorogued.

The session of 1861 was opened by the queen in person, who informed Parliament, among other matters, that the operations of the allied forces in China had met with complete success;

that, having become masters of Peking, an honorable settlement had been obtained; and that the two plenipotentiaries had acted with most friendly concert; and her heartfelt wish was that the differences which had arisen between the northern and southern portion of the American Union might be susceptible of a satisfactory adjustment—that the interest which she took in the well-being of the people of the United States could not but be increased by the kind and cordial reception given by them to the Prince of Wales, during his recent visit to the continent of America.

The prince arrived in Canada July 24, 1860, and remained on the continent until October 20th.

The queen's mother, the Duchess of Kent, died March 16, 1861, aged seventy-five years.

The country having been in the enjoyment of great prosperity, and the people contented, the session of Parliament passed over with unusual tranquillity, and many useful measures were passed. Parliament was prorogued by commission, August 6th.

On August 21st the queen visited Ireland accompanied by Prince Albert.

On November 1, 1861, the queen, as sovereign of the most exalted Order of the Star of India, held her first investiture of that order in great state, and seven knights were installed.

On December 14th of this year died Prince Albert, to the inexpressible grief of her Majesty and all the royal family. There were manifestations of sorrow throughout the nation, such as had never been witnessed since the death of the Princess Charlotte.

For several days before the funeral nearly the whole population of the kingdom appeared in mourning, the funeral took place on December 23d.

On the opening of the session of Parliament, in 1862, by commission, the queen referred to "the calamitous, untimely, and irreparable loss" of her beloved consort, who had been her comfort and support. It had been, however, soothing to her, while suffering most acutely under this awful dispensation of Providence, to receive from all classes of her subjects, the most

cordial assurances of their sympathy with her sorrow, as well of their appreciation of the noble character of him, the greatness of whose loss to her Majesty and to the nation is so justly, and so universally felt and lamented.

Some beautiful and touching things were said about the prince in both houses of Parliament.

The progress of the civil war in America excited a restless feeling in England, which naturally found its expression within the walls of Parliament, where merchants, impatient at the cotton famine, found spokesmen to talk against the inefficiency of the blockade of the Southern ports, and to urge the government to interfere. Mr. Lindsay, the chief representative of that portion of the mercantile community of England which desired the recognition of the Confederacy as an independent State, proposed a resolution, in July, suggesting the propriety of offering mediation, with a view of terminating the hostilities between the contending parties. The matter was warmly discussed, but in the end the councils of prudence and caution prevailed, and the resolution was rejected.

On the occasion of the marriage of the Princess Alice to Prince Louis of Hesse, a dowry of £30,000 and an income of £6,000 a year was voted.

The remaining proceedings of Parliament were of minor importance, and both Houses were prorogued August 7th.

The second great International Exhibition was opened, in London, May 1, 1862, by Lords Commissioners. Owing to the death of Prince Albert none of the royal family were present.

The year 1863, so far as England was concerned, was unmarked by political agitation, and unclouded by the anxieties of war; but there was great distress in Lancashire, owing to the stoppage of many looms, until now dependent on American cotton.

The world was hunted through by the agents of the great cotton industry, in order to find new sources of supply, and £750,000 was raised to assist the distressed workmen.

Parliament met as usual early in February, 1863, and was opened by commission.

The first clause of the royal speech informed both Houses

that her Majesty had declared her consent to a marriage between his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales and her Royal Highness the Princess Alexandra, daughter of Prince Christian of Denmark. The marriage took place at Windsor, March 10th.

The House of Commons, on motion of Lord Palmerston, granted to the Prince and Princess of Wales, in addition to the revenues of the Duchy of Cornwall, amounting to about £60,000 per annum, a revenue of £50,000 a year from the Consolidated Fund, of which sum £10,000 a year was separately settled on the princess, and a jointure of £30,000 a year, should the princess survive her husband.

The estimates for the year and expenditure presented by Mr. Gladstone, showed a large probable surplus, which was considered a favorable state of the country.

Various subjects of pressing interest, European, American, and colonial, were debated during the course of the session, but with little effect on the policy either of the home or foreign governments.

Parliament was opened by commission, February 4, 1864. In the royal speech her Majesty expressed her confidence that Parliament would sympathize with her in her gratitude to the Almighty, on account of the Princess of Wales having given birth to a son. The speech mentioned the recent invasion of Schleswig-Holstein by the forces of Prussia and Austria, and the subject was soon taken up and keenly debated in Parliament.

The financial statement of Mr. Gladstone was again the chief point of attraction, and gave great satisfaction.

On the question of parliamentary reform, he declared that the proper way of dealing with the question was not to wait till a vehement agitation had been commenced in its favor, but boldly anticipate, and by conceding so much of its demands as was just and reasonable, deprive it of its dangerous quality.

Parliament was prorogued on July 29th, and the records of the remaining five months of the year contain little or nothing of public interest.

The gradual abatement of the distress in Lancashire diffused a general feeling of relief and satisfaction.

Little wars raged at the Cape Coast, in Africa, and in New Zealand, while both in China and Japan hostilities were carried on in which England was more or less concerned.

The Governor of Cape Coast Castle having refused to give up to the King of Ashantee two of his slaves who had taken refuge within British territory, the king made an incursion into the lands of the Fantees, a friendly tribe, inhabiting the portion of the coast which adjoins the British settlement. Thereupon Governor Pim ordered a force to invade Ashantee, which, owing to the pestilential nature of the climate, produced no good effect.

When the Parliament met for the session of February, 1865, the queen's speech was read by the Lord Chancellor, who said : "Her Majesty commands us to inform you that the general state of the country is satisfactory, and that the revenue realizes its estimated amount."

The opening of the year was as calm, both at home and abroad, as could possibly be, save for the echoes of storm which still continued to be heard in America. The war still raged there, but it was evident that the collapse was at hand. The war between Denmark and the two great German powers had ended in a treaty of peace. India was prosperous, save for the traces of the great hurricane which had swept over Calcutta a few months before. In one only of the colonies, New Zealand, was anything visibly disturbed, and there the Maori war seemed to have passed its climax. At home, Lancashire distress had abated ; the harvest had been good ; the public purse was full. Everybody, so far as politics was concerned, was waiting quietly for the dissolution of Parliament.

The new elections took place in July. The one which concentrated public attention was that for the Oxford University. Mr. Gladstone had represented that exceptional constituency for eighteen years, but on this occasion he was beaten by Mr. Gathorne Hardy by a majority of one hundred and eighty votes ; he then went to South Lancashire, and was returned by a small majority. The total result of the elections was the return of three hundred and sixty-seven Liberals and two hundred and ninety Conservatives, a gain of fifty from the late House.

A general order addressed by General Grant on June 2, 1865, "to the soldiers of the armies of the United States," in thanking them for their patriotic exertions, formally announced the termination of hostilities. The armies were everywhere disbanded as soon as possible, the men returning to their pursuits of industry. By October 15th upward of seven hundred and eighty-five thousand men had been mustered out of the service.

Toward the end of October alarming news arrived of an insurrection of the negroes in Jamaica. Four hundred and thirty-nine persons were killed and one thousand houses were burned. Martial law was proclaimed, and on the arrival of troops the insurrection was put down.

On the death of Lord Palmerston, the premiership was intrusted for the second time to Earl Russell, with Mr. Gladstone as leader in the House of Commons.

The queen opened her seventh parliament (February 6, 1866), in person, for the first time since the prince consort's death. On March 12th Mr. Gladstone brought forward his scheme of reform, proposing to extend the franchise in counties and boroughs, but the opposition of the moderate Liberals, and their joining the Conservatives, proved fatal to the measure, and in consequence the ministry of Earl Russell resigned. The government had been personally weakened by the successive deaths of Mr. Sidney Herbert, Sir George Cornewall Lewis, the Duke of Newcastle, Earl of Elgin, and Lord Palmerston.

The queen sent for the Earl of Derby to form a Cabinet, who, although the Conservative party was in the minority in the House of Commons, accepted the responsibility of undertaking the management of the government: he as Premier and First Lord of the Treasury; Mr. Disraeli, Chancellor of the Exchequer; Mr. Walpole, Home Secretary; Lord Stanley, Secretary of the Colonies; and Lord Cranborne, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

The new arrangements having been completed, Lord Derby made a ministerial statement in the House of Lords July 9th, in effect that at this late period of the season, and the "Budget" having been disposed of, it was out of the question that the new

government should do more than wind up the business of the session, and on August 10, 1866, Parliament was prorogued.

The miscarriage of Mr. Gladstone's reform bill led to periodical demonstrations during the summer and autumn in favor of the extension of the franchise.

One of the most severe commercial crises ever known made the summer of 1866 forever memorable in the history of banking and finance.

The marriage of the Princess Helena, the queen's third daughter, to Prince Frederick Christian Charles of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg, took place at Windsor Castle July 5, 1866.

The state of Ireland was such as to excite grave and sorrowful reflections in the minds of those citizens of both countries who desired to see old wounds healed and old causes of animosity forgotten. The Fenians were causing much trouble. The Lord Lieutenant wrote: "The state of affairs is very serious. The conspirators, undeterred by the punishment of so many of their leaders, are actively organizing an outbreak with a view to destroy the queen's authority."

There were scattered over the country a number of agents swearing in members and prepared to take command when the moment should arrive. These men were of the most dangerous class. They were Irishmen imbued with American ideas, thoroughly reckless, and possessing considerable military experience.

Parliament opened in February, 1867, by commission. Nearly the whole time of the session was occupied by a bill for parliamentary reform. Amendments were from time to time proposed by Mr. Gladstone and the other Liberal members, but the ministers succeeded in passing their bill, which only applied to England and Wales. Owing to the unquiet state of Ireland the government did not propose to make any alterations in the electoral law of that country. To Scotland they wished to apply a measure very similar to the English one, only differing from it, in fact, so far as the exigencies of the Scotch law required.

Household suffrage in its simple form, in the boroughs; in the counties, a reduction of the qualification like that effected

in England and a moderate redistribution of seats, were the main features of the government measure.

The other subjects which occupied the attention of Parliament during the year were, besides the various points of foreign policy, church rates, religious tests in the universities, religious disabilities on various offices in Ireland, increase of the episcopate, national education, and the factory acts.

An extraordinary session of Parliament was called to vote supplies for the Abyssinian expedition.

Six English missionaries had been imprisoned by King Theodore, who considered that they had been acting against the interests of Abyssinia. Consul Cameron was sent on a mission to treat for their release. He was at first well received, but afterward imprisoned and loaded with chains.

An expedition was consequently fitted out by the British government for their release and to punish the king. It was under command of Sir Robert Napier, and was to consist of about 12,000 men. The advance force was landed on the Beach of Zoulla, November, 1867. The distance to Magdala, the point of attack, was four hundred miles, and on January 15, 1868, the army commenced its march. Engineers having preceded it to make the road passable, on April 11th Magdala was reached, and, after a heavy bombardment, that stronghold was captured. Theodore, finding all was lost, put a pistol to his head and summarily ended his miseries.

On April 24th the army broke up its encampment and took up its line of march for home.

Parliament was dissolved April 11th, and summonses for a new election issued under the reform act of 1867.

Owing to ill-health the Earl of Derby retired from the ministry early in 1868, and was succeeded by Mr. Disraeli.

The new elections gave a gain to the Liberal party in the net result of fifteen seats, equal to thirty votes on a division; but their triumph was chequered by several minor reverses, among which the rejection of Mr. Gladstone for South Lancashire was the most remarkable. He had to console himself with the suffrages of Greenwich, which had generously come to the rescue.

Mr. Disraeli, finding himself in the minority and not wishing

to go through the form of meeting Parliament, placed his resignation in the hands of the queen, who immediately sent for Mr. Gladstone as the recognized head of the Liberal party. He formed a Cabinet, taking the place of First Lord of the Treasury; Lord Hatherly, Lord Chancellor; Lord de Grey and Ripon, President of the Council; Mr. Lowe, Chancellor of the Exchequer; Mr. Bruce, Home Secretary; Earl of Clarendon, Foreign Secretary; Earl Granville, Colonial Secretary; Mr. Cardwell, Secretary at War; Mr. Chichester Fortescue, Secretary for Ireland; Duke of Argyll, Secretary for India; and Mr. Childers, Secretary of the Admiralty.

The new parliament met December 10, 1868, Mr. Denison being re-elected Speaker, and then adjourned to the 29th to allow the new ministers to be re-elected, and the House was further prorogued to February 16, 1869, on which day it was opened by commission.

In the royal speech, after allusions had been made to the settlement of the rupture between Greece and Turkey and to the disturbances in New Zealand, the great legislative project of the year was thus foreshadowed:

"The ecclesiastical arrangements of Ireland will be brought under your consideration at a very early date, and the legislation which will be necessary in order to their final adjustment, will make the largest demands upon the wisdom of Parliament."

Mr. Gladstone lost no time in giving notice that on March 1st he should move that the acts relating to the Irish Church Establishment and the grant to Maynooth College be read, and that the House should then resolve itself into a committee to consider said acts. A bill to disestablish the Irish Church was then brought forward in the Commons, and after a long debate was carried by a majority of 114 votes. It was not so successful in the Lords, where it met with great opposition, and was sent back to the House with many amendments which the Commons would not receive. But through the ability and discretion of Lord Cairns, the Chancellor, a compromise was secured, and on July 26th it received the royal assent, the disestablishment to take place on January 1, 1871. A bill was then passed to abol-

ish the import duty of one shilling per quarter on corn, left by Sir Robert Peel when he repealed the corn laws of 1846.

This year was one of considerable suffering to large masses of the population, as the increase in pauperism too plainly showed. Trade was in a state of stagnation, but partially revived toward the close of the year, and gave indications of a more prosperous future. Although Fenianism had been so far suppressed in Ireland that the government ventured to allow the act for the suspension of the habeas corpus to expire, the spirit of disaffection now took the form of an agitation to obtain the release of the Fenian prisoners.

Parliament met on February 8, 1870, and the great measure of the session, the Irish Land Bill, was soon afterward brought forward. Of the three branches which, according to Mr. Gladstone's figure, had grown upon the tree of Protestant ascendancy in Ireland, one, the Church, had fallen. There remained the Land and Education; the last was to be left for a future year. But with regard to the land the queen's speech was explicit. "It will be proposed to you to amend the laws respecting the occupation and acquisition of land in Ireland in a manner adapted to the peculiar circumstances of that country and calculated, as her Majesty believes, to bring about improved relations between the several classes concerned in Irish agriculture, which collectively constitute the great bulk of the people. These provisions when matured by your partiality and wisdom, as her Majesty trusts, will tend to inspire, among persons with whom such sentiments may still be wanting, that steady confidence in the law and that desire to render assistance in its effective administration which mark her subjects in general, and thus will aid in consolidating the fabric of the empire."

A bill was therefore introduced on February 15th by Mr. Gladstone. The great change which the bill effected was in fact a change in legal presumption. Previously, the law presumed all improvements to be the work of the landlord, and had given them to him. This bill proposed to reverse this presumption, and to presume that improvements were the work of the occupier, giving to the landlord the business of showing the presumption wrong in any special case.

The direct hostility to the bill came from the extreme Irish party, but, after a long debate, it was carried in the Commons by a large majority. It then went up to the House of Lords, where it met with opposition, and, after some amendments, was carried, and received the royal assent on August 1st. The next bill brought in was the Elementary Education Bill, which soon became a bone of contention between the Episcopalians and Nonconformists, but it was also carried through both Houses, and became law. It brought education within the reach of every English child, and covered England with good schools.

A bill was also passed which provided that any clergyman, wishing to relinquish the office of priest or deacon, might do so by signing a deed, to be registered by the bishop; from the moment of his signing he was to be free to practise any trade or profession, and become a layman. The Married Woman Property Bill also passed. But the bills for abolishing religious tests in universities, and also "The marriage of deceased wife's sister" bills, were lost.

At the opening of the year 1871 the German armies were surrounding Paris, and the raw levies and beaten veterans of France were attempting a hopeless resistance.

In England every one saw that the end of the struggle was approaching, and the public mind began uneasily to ask the question, What next?

Parliament opened in February, 1871, by commission. A paragraph in the queen's speech read, "The time appears appropriate for turning such lessons (as the Franco-German war) to account, by efforts more decisive than heretofore to practical improvement. In attempting this, you will not fail to bear in mind the special features in the position of this country, so favorable to the freedom and security of the people; and if the changes from a less to a more effective and elastic system of defensive military preparations shall be found to involve, at least for a time, an increase of various charges, your prudence and patriotism will not grudge the cost, so long as you are satisfied that the end is important and the means judicious. No time will be lost in laying before you a bill for the better regulation of the army and the auxiliary land forces of the crown;

and I hardly need commend it to your anxious and impartial consideration."

The promised bill was introduced by Mr. Cardwell, the Secretary of State for the War Department, very early in the session: the gross addition to the numerical strength of the army was to be nineteen thousand nine hundred and eighty men. Mr. Cardwell said the government had made up its mind that purchase in the army must be abolished, and that the control of the militia and other auxiliary forces must be taken away from the Lord Lieutenants, and given to the queen.

In fact, the abolition of purchase, and the increase of the efficiency of the reserve—together with certain provisions for giving a local connection to every regiment—were at once seen to be the principal views of the bill.

The bill passed the Commons, and went up to the Lords, where it was rejected by a vote of one hundred and fifty to one hundred and twenty-five.

The way in which Mr. Gladstone met this defeat was original: with the suddenness for which his proceedings have at times been fatally famous, he abolished purchase in the army by a *coup d'état*.

It was known beforehand that purchase was only legal, so far as the Queen's Regulations allowed it; and clearly, therefore, all that was technically required for its abolition was that the regulations should be altered so as to forbid it. But no one supposed that, after months of debate, and after a hostile vote in the House of Lords, any minister would have continued to advise such a stretch of prerogative. Mr. Gladstone, however, was equal to the situation. Two days after the division in the House of Lords, he announced to the astonished House of Commons that purchase was already abolished; her Majesty having been advised to cancel the old warrant which allowed it, and to issue a new warrant which forbade it. Therefore, he said, after the 1st of November next purchase will cease to exist.

The anger of the opposition at such a high-handed measure as this may be easily conceived. The Duke of Richmond moved, and carried by a majority of eighty, a vote of censure in the Lords. In the House of Commons, though no vote of censure

was attempted, many Liberals of mark sided with Mr. Disraeli in protesting against this resort to prerogative. Only a few of the other measures of this session deserve notice. The ballot was put off to the next session. The bill for legalizing marriage with a deceased wife's sister passed the Commons, but was rejected by the Lords. The bill for the abolition of religious tests in the universities was passed, but the distinction between lay and clerical fellowships was still retained. This year also saw the repeal of the Ecclesiastical Titles Act.

The marriage of her Majesty's fourth daughter, the Princess Louise, to the Marquis of Lorne, the eldest son of the Duke of Argyll, was celebrated with great state at Windsor Castle, on March 21, 1871.

Toward the end of the year the Speaker of the House of Commons, Mr. Denison, resigned, and was soon after raised to the peerage as Lord Ossington. He was succeeded by Mr. Brand, the member for Cambridgeshire.

A High Commission met at Washington, composed of English and American statesmen, for the settlement of differences between the two countries owing to the injuries caused by alleged breaches of neutrality by England during the civil war, and the treaty of Washington was concluded May 8, 1871, which resulted in the International Court of Arbitration which met at Geneva the following year. The court was composed of five members, representing England, the United States, Italy, Brazil, and Switzerland.

On September 14, 1872, Count Selopis, the chairman, declared the labors of the arbitrators terminated, and awarded the United States \$15,500,000, to be paid by Great Britain for damages sustained.

The cession of the Dutch colonies on the Gold Coast to Great Britain, 1872, was the cause, the following year, of a war with the King of Ashantee.

On the re-assembling of Parliament, 1873, Mr. Gladstone introduced his measure for destroying the third branch of what he called the upas tree that overshadowed Ireland. The Irish University Bill, which seemed at first to be regarded with favor by all parties, was defeated on a second reading by a majority

of three against the government ; but Mr. Disraeli declined to carry on, with the existing House of Commons, the government which Mr. Gladstone expressed his wish to resign after a premiership of four years.

The restored ministry accepted Mr. Fawcett's bill for the simple abolition of tests in Trinity College and the University of Dublin. The session was however distinguished by the passage of Lord Chancellor Selborne's great measure for the combination of the courts of law and equity in one supreme court of judicature, and the establishment of a court of appeal.

There also passed a new licensing act, an adulteration act, a public health act, an act for vote by ballot at parliamentary and municipal elections, and the amendment of the act of uniformity of 1662.

Parliament was prorogued on August 10th. Greenwich Hospital was opened as a naval college this year. The Shah of Persia visited England, remaining from June 18th to July 5th. War was declared against Ashantee July 14, 1873.

Three Ashantee armies, the centre one of twelve thousand men, had invaded the protected country of the Fantees, making straight for Cape Coast Castle ; they were met and repulsed at the Castle of Elmina by a British force, chiefly of seamen and marines, under command of Colonel Festing ; they had also imprisoned some German missionaries.

A force of four thousand men was despatched from England, under command of Major-General Sir Garnet Wolseley. The main body of the troops were kept on board ship, owing to the deadly climate, until the advance of sappers and some troops had prepared the road through the jungle to the frontiers, and all arrangements were made for a sudden march on Coomassie, the capital, distant about one hundred and forty miles from Cape Coast Castle.

The troops landed early in January, 1874, and after some sharp fighting on the road entered Coomassie February 4th. Finding the king had fled, Sir Garnet, in vain hopes of an interview, after waiting two days, fired the town, and immediately with his troops marched back to the coast and embarked his men, his object being accomplished. A treaty was made with

the agents of the king stipulating to abolish human sacrifice, to pay a sum of money as indemnity for the war, and promising to keep the peace with their neighbors. The missionaries had already been released.

The marriage of Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, to the Grand Duchess Marie Alexandrovna, only daughter of the Czar Alexander of Russia, was celebrated at St. Petersburg January 23, 1874.

The dissolution of Parliament was suddenly announced by proclamation January 26th.

The general elections—the first held under the joint operations of the new reform and ballot acts—made a change of no less than one hundred and ten votes in the balance of parties, giving the Conservatives a majority of over fifty votes on a division, and on February 17, 1874, Mr. Gladstone resigned without waiting the meeting of Parliament.

The queen sent for Mr. Disraeli and instructed him to form a Cabinet, which he succeeded in doing, and on the 21st the following appointments were made: Mr. Disraeli, First Lord of the Treasury; Lord Cairns, Lord Chancellor; Lord Malmesbury, Lord Privy Seal; Duke of Richmond, President of the Council; the Earl of Derby, Secretary of Foreign Affairs; the Marquis of Salisbury, Secretary for India; Earl of Carnarvon, the Colonial Secretary; Mr. Gathorne Hardy, Secretary at War; Mr. R. A. Cross, the Home Department; Mr. Hunt, Secretary of the Admiralty; Sir Stafford Northcote, Chancellor of the Exchequer; Lord John Manners, Postmaster-General.

The celebrated Tichborne trial was brought to a close February 28th, and a sentence of fourteen years' penal servitude pronounced.

The new parliament opened March 5, 1874. A message from the crown was read directing the House to elect a Speaker, when the Right Honorable Mr. Brand was re-elected without opposition, and both Houses adjourned until the 19th to enable ministers to be re-elected to their seats after accepting office.

The session was opened March 19th by commission, the Lord Chancellor reading the speech from the throne. The principal items were:

“My relations with all foreign powers continue to be most friendly. I shall not fail to exercise the influence arising from those cordial relations for the maintenance of European peace and the faithful observance of international obligations.

“The war with the King of Ashantee has terminated in the capture and destruction of his capital, and in negotiations which, I trust, may lead to a more satisfactory condition of affairs than has hitherto prevailed on the west coast of Africa.”

Parliament closed its short session on August 7th; its course was peaceable and almost dull, many of the promised measures having been abandoned for this session by the government.

In September the annexation of the Fiji Islands, by the desire of the inhabitants, secured a station in the Pacific of great importance for communication with Australia and New Zealand.

Affairs in England were now in a satisfactory condition. New means of communication at home and abroad had been supplied by a further reduction in the postage, by the placing of the telegraph in the United Kingdom under the post-office department, by the laying of new cables connecting Europe still more closely with the East and West Indies, with America and Australia, and by the opening of the Pacific Railroad and the Mount Cenis tunnel.

Mr. Gladstone's attendance in the House of Commons had through the late session been fitful and uncertain, and on January 13, 1875, he addressed a letter to Earl Granville, in which he wrote :

“Before determining whether I should offer to assume a charge which might extend over a length of time, I have reviewed, with all the care in my power, a number of considerations, both public and private, of which a portion, and these not by any means insignificant, were not in existence at the date of my former letter (March 12th).

“The result has been that I see no public advantage in my continuing to act as the leader of the Liberal party; and that at the age of sixty-five, and after forty-two years of a laborious public life, I think myself entitled to retire on the present opportunity. This retirement is dictated to me by my personal

views as to the best method of spending the closing years of my life."

Various were the opinions passed upon this step by the organs of national opinion. A meeting of the Liberal members of Parliament was held at the Reform Club on February 3d, and they nominated the Marquis of Hartington as their leader in the House of Commons.

It was the intention of the queen to have opened Parliament in person, but owing to the serious illness of Prince Leopold she was unable to do so. It was opened by commission on February 6th. The speech from the throne read: "It is with great satisfaction that I again meet you and resort to the assistance and advice of my Parliament.

"I continue to receive assurances of friendship from all foreign powers. The peace of Europe has remained, and I trust will remain, unbroken: to preserve and consolidate it will ever be a main object of my endeavor.

"The conference held at Brussels on the laws and usages of war has concluded its sittings. My government have carefully examined the report of its proceedings, but bearing in mind, on the one hand, the importance of the principles involved, and on the other the widely divergent opinions which were there expressed, and the improbability of their being reconciled, I have not thought it right to accede to proposals which have been made for further negotiations on the subject.

"The differences which have arisen between China and Japan, and which at one time threatened to lead to war between those states, have been happily adjusted.

"The past year has been one of general prosperity and progress throughout my colonial empire. An ample harvest has restored prosperity to the provinces of my Eastern empire, which last year was visited by famine. By the blessing of Providence my Indian government has been able to avert the loss of life which I had reason to apprehend from that great calamity.

"The various statutes of an exceptional or temporary character, now in force for the preservation of peace in Ireland, will be brought to your notice, with a view to determine whether some of them may not be dispensed with.

"Several measures, which were unavoidably postponed at the end of last session will be again introduced."

Sir Stafford Northcote's budget was marked by an effort to reduce the national debt by means of a new sinking fund, providing for the regular annual appropriation of £28,000,000 to the charge of the debt, which was sanctioned by Parliament August 10th.

Two elections for members of Parliament, which happened to take place on the same day, led to much sensational excitement—that of Mr. John Mitchell for Tipperary and Dr. Kinaley for Stoke-upon-Trent. Mitchell was a well-known agitator, who, sentenced to transportation for his share in the Irish rebellion of 1848, had broken his parole in Australia and escaped to the United States and there had become a citizen. On a vacancy for a seat in Parliament taking place for Tipperary he addressed the electors from New York, and was by them nominated and returned. Immediately on the official announcement being made to the House Mr. Disraeli moved the following resolution, and which was carried: "That John Mitchell, having been adjudged guilty of treason-felony, and sentenced to fourteen years' transportation, and not having endured the full term of his sentence, nor having received pardon, has become and continues to be incapable to sit in Parliament."

A new writ was issued, and Mitchell was again returned; but this time he had a rival in the person of Captain Moore, who claimed the seat. Three months afterward Mitchell died.

The budget was an unexciting one; the Chancellor of the Exchequer had neither a deficiency to meet nor a surplus to dispose of.

The South African colonies this year occupied a good deal of attention. Sir Garnet Wolseley had been sent out as High Commissioner to settle matters at the Cape Colony and Natal.

The Prince of Wales embarked October 11th for a visit to India, for which the House of Commons voted £60,000. He arrived at Bombay November 8th, and was received with great enthusiasm by the native princes and British residents. He travelled through the greater part of the empire, returning to Bombay March 11th, and embarked for England.

The third session of the ninth Parliament of Queen Victoria was opened by the queen in person February 8, 1876. The text of the speech was as follows: "My relations with all foreign powers continue to be of a cordial character. The insurrectionary movement which during the last six months has been maintained in the Turkish provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and which the troops of the Sultan have up to the present time been unable to repress, has excited the attention and interest of the great European powers. I have considered it my duty not to stand aloof from the efforts now being made by allied and friendly governments to bring about a pacification of the disturbed districts, and I have accordingly, while respecting the independence of the Porte, joined in urging on the Sultan the expediency of adopting such measures of administrative reform as may remove all reasonable cause of discontent on the part of his Christian subjects.

"I have agreed to purchase, subject to your sanction, the shares which belonged to the Khedive of Egypt in the Suez Canal, and I rely with confidence on your enabling me to complete a transaction in which the public interests are deeply involved.

"The affairs of my Colonial Empire, the general prosperity of which has continued to advance, have received a large share of my attention."

On March 23d a bill passed the House of Commons, after a long debate and some opposition, entitled "The Royal Titles Bill," giving to the queen the title of "Empress of India," and on May 1, 1876, proclamation was made by the Sheriffs of London and Middlesex, and the Lord Provost of Edinburgh, and in India, at Delhi, with great solemnities, on January 1, 1877.

The *London Gazette* of July 18th contained the official announcement "That the queen has granted the dignities of a Viscount and an Earl of the United Kingdom upon the Right Honorable Benjamin Disraeli and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten by the titles of Viscount Hughenden and Earl of Beaconsfield.

Pullman palace cars were first introduced on English railroads August 31, 1876. The Arctic expedition, consisting of H. M.

ships *Alert* and *Discovery*, entered Portsmouth harbor November 2d, after seventeen months' absence, having reached $82^{\circ} 27'$ north latitude, the highest point ever yet attained by a ship.

Affairs in the East were becoming serious, and a conference of the great powers was appointed to be held in Constantinople in December, the Marquis of Salisbury representing Great Britain.

At the annual banquet at Guildhall the Earl of Beaconsfield, in his speech, said: "My first object is peace, my second the amelioration of the suffering nationalities."

"We have nothing to gain by war. We are essentially a non-aggressive power; there are no cities nor provinces that we desire to appropriate. We have built up an empire of which we are proud, and our proudest boast is this—that that empire subsists as much upon sympathy as upon force."

"But if the struggle comes, it should also be recollected that there is no country so prepared for war as England, because there is no country whose resources are so great."

"In a righteous cause—and I trust that England will never embark in war except in a righteous cause, a cause that concerns her liberty, her independence, or her empire—England is not a country that will have to inquire whether she can enter into a second or a third campaign. In a righteous cause England will commence a fight that will not end until right is done."

The several bills that passed through Parliament were of local interest. The changes of this year reduced the ministerial majority by five seats, but still with a substantial working majority.

On February 8, 1877, the queen opened the fourth session of her ninth Parliament. The speech read as follows:

"It is with much pleasure that I again resort to the advice and assistance of my Parliament.

"The hostilities which before the close of the last session had broken out, between Turkey on the one hand and Servia and Montenegro on the other, engaged my most serious attention, and I anxiously waited for an opportunity when my good offices, together with those of my allies, might be usefully interposed.

"This opportunity presented itself by the solicitation of

Servia for our mediation, the offer of which was ultimately entertained by the Porte.

“ In the course of the negotiations I deemed it expedient to lay down, and in concert with the other powers, to submit to the Porte, certain bases upon which I held that not only peace might be brought about with the Principalities, but the permanent pacification of the disturbed provinces, including Bulgaria, and the amelioration of their condition might be effected.

“ Agreed to by the powers, they required to be expanded and worked out by negotiation, or by conference accompanied by an armistice. The Porte, though not accepting the basis, and proposing other terms, was willing to submit them to the equitable consideration of the powers.

“ While proceeding to act in this mediation I thought it right, after inquiring into the facts, to denounce to the Porte the excesses ascertained to have been committed in Bulgaria, and to express my reprobation of their perpetrators.

“ An armistice having been arranged, a conference met at Constantinople for the consideration of extended terms, in accordance with the original basis, in which conference I was represented by a special envoy as well as by my ambassador.

“ In taking these steps my object has throughout been to maintain the peace of Europe, and to bring about the better government of the disturbed provinces, without infringing upon the independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire.

“ My assumption of the imperial title at Delhi was welcomed by the chiefs and people of India with professions of affection and loyalty most grateful to my feelings.

“ It is with deep regret that I have to announce a calamity in that part of my dominions which will demand the most earnest watchfulness on the part of the government there. A famine, not less serious than that of 1873, has overspread a large portion of the presidencies of Madras and Bombay. I am confident that every resource will be employed, not merely in arrest of this present famine, but in obtaining fresh experience for the prevention or mitigation of such visitations for the future.

“ The prosperity and progress of my Colonial Empire remain unchecked, although the proceedings of the government of the

Transvaal Republic, and the hostilities in which it is engaged with the neighboring tribes have caused some apprehensions for the safety of my subjects in South Africa. I trust, however, that the measures which I have taken will suffice to prevent any serious evil.

“I submit to you the several measures which may be laid before you for your consideration, and I trust that the blessing of the Almighty will attend your labors and direct your efforts.”

The premier was now transferred from the Lower to the Upper House, a most unusual thing, while in possession of that office. The leadership of the House of Commons was now intrusted to Sir Stafford Northcote, Chancellor of the Exchequer.

The debates on the Eastern question occupied a large portion of the time of both Houses.

The “Budget” for the current twelve months showed an estimated surplus of £226,000, the revenue being £79,020,000, and expenditure £78,794,000.

On July 31st, a band of Irish obstructives endeavored, through an abuse of the rules of the House, to clog altogether the wheels of legislation. It was the crisis of a strange plot developed for the first time within the walls of St. Stephens, and continued for twenty-six hours without intermission, which caused the following resolutions to be passed by a vote of 282 to 32:

“That, when a member, after being twice declared out of order, shall be pronounced by Mr. Speaker, or by the Chairman of Committees, as the case may be, to be disregarding the authority of the Chair, the debate shall be at once suspended, and, on a motion being made in the House that the member be not heard during the remainder of the debate or during the setting of the committee, such motion, after the member complained of has been heard in explanation, shall be put without further debate.

“That in Committee of the whole House, no member have power to move more than once during the debate on the same question, either that the Chairman do report progress, or that the Chairman leave the chair, nor to speak more than once to such motion, and that no member who has made one of those motions have power to make the other on the same question.”

After the passage of several local bills Parliament was prorogued, after which the political history of the remainder of the year was chiefly connected with the Eastern question, and a schism in the Cabinet became apparent between a peace party and a war party, the former being led by the Earl of Derby and the latter by the Premier.

During the summer and fall several engagements had taken place between the Russians and the Turks with varied success. The Russians had been twice repulsed before Plevna with great loss, when they determined to invest and starve the garrison to surrender.

Osman Pasha, who commanded at Plevna, isolated from all help, held his post with unflinching resolution; finding that no aid was at hand he resolved, December 10th, to force his way through the Russian entrenchments. But the attempt was unsuccessful; he was wounded, driven back, and forced to surrender. This disastrous event cost the Turks over thirty thousand prisoners and four hundred guns. This defeat, added to the loss of Kars, a short time previously, was ruinous to their cause. Meanwhile the Russians crossed the Balkans, defeated the Turks, and took Sofia.

Such heavy losses, following in rapid succession, convinced the Porte that all further attempts to continue the war was hopeless, and at the end of the year 1877 the Sultan requested the mediation of England.

Mr. Gladstone visited Ireland in October. In a speech, on being presented with the freedom of the city of Dublin, he said, "I am bound to say, in the first place, that I attach no value to our land laws in respect to entail and settlement. On the contrary, I am in favor of rather bold and important, if not sweeping changes. Greater freedom ought to be established, and I think that not merely economical but social mischief results from the present system. Therefore, I am prepared to entertain on that subject a great change."

Lord Beaconsfield, in the speech at the Mansion House dinner, in November, said: "No sooner had war been declared (between Russia and Turkey) than her Majesty's government felt it to be their duty to announce at once, in language that

could not be mistaken, the policy which, under the circumstances, they intended to pursue. It was not a policy framed for the occasion, and merely because war had been declared ; it was a policy which from the opportunities that had been afforded us for some time we had deeply considered."

"That policy we have unanimously adopted, and from that policy we have never swerved. What, then, was that policy? It was a policy of conditional neutrality. In the circumstances of the case we did not believe it was to the honor or the interest of England, or of Turkey, that we should take any part in the impending contest.

"But while we announced the neutrality which we were prepared to observe, we declared at the same time, that that neutrality must cease if British interests were assailed or menaced.

"Cosmopolitan critics, men who are the friends of every country save their own, have denounced this policy, as a selfish policy. My Lord Mayor, it is as selfish as patriotism. But it is the policy of her Majesty's Government. It is the policy they adopted from the first, it is the policy they have maintained, and it continues to be their policy to believe that it is their duty to protect British interest abroad, and it is a policy which they believe the people of this country have sanctioned and approved."

The closing events of the year in the East aroused the feeling of the people in England to check what now seemed to be the designs of Russia on Constantinople and the threatened danger to our communications with India, and Parliament was summoned before the usual time.

The proposal to send up the British fleet within the Dardanelles was opposed in the Cabinet by the Earls of Derby and Carnarvon, and the latter resigned the secretaryship of the colonies in consequence.

Lord Lawrence, in a long letter to the *Times*, to which before the close of the year events were to give significance, protested against a recent change of policy upon the northwest frontier of India. "He disapproved the occupation of Quettah, twenty-five miles beyond the Bolan Pass, on the ground that the place

was useless, unless we intended a forward movement on Candahar and Herat, which he strongly deprecated. It would bitterly irritate all Afghans, be an excessive expense, and alienate the minds of all the native troops employed."

Parliament was opened January 17, 1878, by commission. The following were the principal points of the speech from the throne.

"I have thought fit to assemble you before the usual period of your meeting in order that you might become acquainted with the efforts I have made to terminate the war now devastating Eastern Europe and Armenia, and that I might have the advice and assistance of my Parliament in the present state of public affairs.

"You are aware that after having unsuccessfully striven to avert that war I declared my intention to observe neutrality in a contest which I lamented, but had failed to prevent, so long as the interests of my empire, as defined by my government, were not threatened. I expressed, at the same time, my earnest desire to avail myself of any opportunity which might present itself for promoting a peaceful settlement of the questions at issue between the belligerent powers.

"The successes obtained by the Russian arms both in Europe and Asia convinced the Porte that it should endeavor to bring to a close hostilities which were causing immense sufferings to its subjects.

"The government of the Sultan accordingly addressed to the neutral powers—parties to the treaties relating to the Turkish Empire—an appeal for their good offices. It did not, however, appear to the majority of the powers thus addressed that they could usefully comply with the request, and they communicated this opinion to the Porte.

"The Porte then determined to make a separate appeal to my government, and I at once agreed to make an inquiry of the Emperor of Russia whether his Imperial Majesty would entertain overtures for peace. The emperor expressed in reply his earnest desire for peace, and stated at the same time his opinion as to the course which should be pursued for its attainment.

“My relations with foreign powers continue to be friendly.

“I am thankful that the terrible famine which has ravaged Southern India is nearly at an end. Strenuous and successful exertions have been made by my local governments to relieve the sufferings of the population, and in that duty they have been powerfully seconded by the liberal aid of my people at home and in my colonies. I have directed that an inquiry should be made into the measures most proper to diminish the danger of such calamities for the future.

“The condition of native affairs in South Africa has of late caused me some anxiety, and has demanded the watchful attention of my government. I have thought it expedient to reinforce my troops in that part of my empire. I trust that a peaceable and satisfactory settlement of all differences may be shortly attained.”

In closing the debate on the address, the Marquis of Salisbury testified with extreme warmth to the “*almost tormenting desire for peace*” evinced by the Czar, and assured the Lords that if it were possible to ask for a secret session, he could satisfy them that we were not isolated in our diplomacy, or forced to act alone. He maintained, however, that the war itself is a far greater evil than any of the chronic and cruel oppressions which caused the war, and he challenged Parliament either to give its implicit confidence to the government, and so enable it to act with force in these great issues, or to replace it with one in which it could place implicit confidence.

News arrived in England that the Russians were threatening Gallipoli and the Dardanelles, and had advanced within thirty miles of Constantinople. The British fleet was ordered to the Dardanelles, on which the Earl of Derby resigned his seat in the Cabinet, and was succeeded by the Marquis of Salisbury in the Foreign Office. The Liberals at once withdrew their opposition to the vote for £6,000,000 demanded by government for military preparations.

On February 24, 1878, the Grand Duke Nicholas fixed his headquarters at San Stefano, near Constantinople, and there a preliminary treaty was signed, by which Roumania, Montenegro, and Servia were to be independent states.

The government had now commenced military and naval preparations in earnest, and for several weeks previous to the signing of the treaty of San Stefano all was talk and rumor—one day of war, and another of peace. The war party of society and the clubs was loud and busy, and in spite of occasional big words in the Houses of Parliament, the government must be credited with a real desire to preserve peace with Russia, though unable to silence the language of suspicion and dislike with which too many of their supporters openly expressed their feelings toward her.

The general sense of England was too strongly against war to allow of her drifting into it, notwithstanding a series of noisy park and street meetings, for the benefit of the rough element, who love to war against good clothes and railings.

Mr. Gathorne Hardy, afterward created Lord Cranbrook, took the place of Lord Salisbury in the Indian Office, and Colonel Stanley received the appointment of Secretary at War.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer, in presenting the budget, informed the House that the revenue for 1877-78 had turned out very satisfactory, showing a surplus of income over expenditure of £859,803; and for the coming twelve months an income of £79,460,000, and an expenditure of £81,019,676, he was sorry to say, estimated a deficiency of £1,560,000, and he proposed to meet that deficiency with twopence on the pound on incomes and an extra tax of fourpence per pound on tobacco.

The Earl of Beaconsfield brought down to the Lords a message from the crown stating that her Majesty, in existing circumstances, had thought it right to call out the reserve forces for permanent service.

Parliament adjourned on April 12th for the Easter holidays. The following day a Calcutta telegram announced that orders had been received by the Indian government to despatch a force of seven thousand native troops to Malta, which, on the reassembling of Parliament, caused a violent debate on the legality of such a course.

Diplomacy brought about a congress instead of a war, and Lords Beaconsfield and Salisbury represented Great Britain. The first meeting was held at Berlin, June 13, 1878, and resulted

in the treaty of Berlin, between Great Britain, Germany, Austria, France, Italy, Russia, and Turkey, for the settlement of affairs in the East. On August 3d the treaty was ratified.

A defensive alliance between Great Britain and Turkey was signed at Constantinople. England engaged to join Turkey in defending the territories left to Turkey in Asia against any future attempts at conquest by Russia; while in return, the Sultan promised to introduce reforms to be hereafter agreed on, and, as a provision for executing these engagements, he assigned the island of Cyprus to be occupied and governed by England. That island was chosen as commanding the chief access from the Mediterranean to Syria and the Euphrates Valley, and well situated for the defence of the Suez Canal.

Parliament was prorogued on August 16th. The Eastern question having absorbed the principal time of Parliament, the business of law-making was nearly suspended.

Trouble was now brewing in Afghanistan. General Roberts started for Peshawar with secret orders, and a force of twelve thousand men was ordered to be in readiness for the frontier. It had been England's settled policy, since 1842, to maintain a friendly understanding with Afghanistan; but now the reigning Ameer, Shere Ali (son of Dost Mohammed), had shown the resolution to place himself in the hands of Russia, receiving her envoy at Cabul, while he turned back a British envoy on the frontier.

To avenge an insult which threatened British influence in Asia, an army entered Afghanistan November, 1878, and soon accomplished its object. Shere Ali fled in the vain hope of help from Russia, was disappointed, and died early in 1879.

An early session of Parliament was called December 5, 1878, and was opened by commission. The speech read as follows:

"I regret that I have been obliged to call your attendance at an unusual, and probably, to most of you, an inconvenient season.

"The hostility toward my Indian government manifested by the Ameer of Afghanistan, and the manner in which he repulsed my friendly mission, left me no alternative but to make a peremptory demand for redress.

"This demand having been disregarded, I have directed an expedition to be sent into his territory, and I have taken the earliest opportunity of calling you together and making to you the communication required by law. I have directed that papers on the subject shall be laid before you.

"I receive from all foreign powers assurances of their friendly feelings, and have every reason to believe that the arrangements for the pacification of Europe, made by the treaty of Berlin, will be successfully carried into effect."

In the debate on the address, Lord Cranbrook stated "that the Russians had considered Afghanistan as the weak point in our armor: they thought they could turn our watch-dog, the Ameer, into a bloodhound against us, and our whole object in undertaking the war was to obtain a safe frontier."

On December 14, 1878, died the Princess Alice, Duchess of Hesse, second daughter of Queen Victoria, from diphtheria, while in loving attendance upon her children, all of whom had suffered from the disease.

In the issue of the *Times* of December 31st was the following: "The depression of trade which has been deplored for the past four years, has not been removed; it has sunk, indeed, to a lower level than before. Fortunately, a good harvest and plentiful supplies from all foreign countries, have kept down the price of bread, and bad trade has so far profited the consumer that all the necessities of life have been cheaper than they were in prosperous times. If it were not for this mitigation, the effect of repeated reductions in the rate of wages—ineffectually opposed by strikes, of withdrawals of capital, of bankruptcies and liquidations, of banking disasters, of alarms in the money market, of ministerial embarrassments in finance, and of augmented taxation, actual or prospective—would have been far more severely felt. As it was, in spite of some distress and consequent discontent throughout the country, the poor law returns showed no extraordinary increase of pauperism until the last few weeks of the year, when the hard weather and want of employment combined to cause widespread suffering."

At the beginning of the year 1879 the mind of England had comparative rest from questions of foreign policy. The conduct

of past affairs by the government was still discussed before keen audiences in extra parliamentary utterances, but there was no fresh matter for controversy, no immediate prospect of new complications. It appeared as if the issues between the two great parties of the state, to be fought out at the general election to which politicians were looking forward, might be regarded as complete, and the ministry must stand or fall by its conduct in the momentous crisis of the past two years. The country was not prepared for any sudden development of testing consequences, and its anxieties were directed homeward, to the depression of trade, and the pressure of hard times on the poor. The distress produced by want of employment had been aggravated by a winter of great severity. From all the large towns came the sorrowful tale: thousands of families, which in times of ordinary prosperity lived in decent comfort, were said to be on the brink of starvation. Columns of the newspapers were filled every day with statistics of the numbers in receipt of relief, and with startling cases of individual hardship. The pressure was peculiarly severe on those who struggled against pauperism to the last. Many were found by benevolent visitors in a state of absolute famine, having pawned all their scanty possessions, and even their clothes, to obtain food.

Large sums were voted by municipalities, relief funds were swelled by munificent subscriptions, and no effort was spared to discover those who were too proud to apply for assistance. All through the cold month of January benevolence had no lack of occupation.

The outbreak of the Zulu war was the first external affair that arrested public attention.

For several months war with the Zulus was considered inevitable, but outside the circle of the government there was no thought of the troubles that were brewing in South Africa.

The difficulties out of which the war with Cetshwayo grew, were of long standing, though it was solely the act and will of the High Commissioner, Sir Bartle Frere, that precipitated a forcible solution. The government were of opinion up to the last moment, that everything might be settled by the exercise

of reasonable compromise and forbearance, and Sir Henry Bulwer, the Lieut.-Governor of Natal, had for two years and more been trying to smooth over the disturbed relations with the Zulu king by such means. His motives for forbearance were strengthened by his firm and expressed persuasion that for the original disturbance of those relations, the white men, the Boers of the Republic of the Transvaal, and not the blacks, were to blame.

The Boers, in the year 1876, addressed a message to Cetshwayo demanding the surrender of certain fugitives, the acknowledgment of their protectorate over the Amaswazis, and the acknowledgment of a new boundary which they had proclaimed. The question of boundary lay at the root of the whole matter.

Cetshwayo was by no means disposed to submit. He at once called out his regiments, and despatched messengers to Natal, complaining of the aggression of the Boers, asking what he had done to be turned out of his own house, and declaring he would fight to the death against such an attempt.

The Boers were now warned that her Majesty's government would recognize no extension of their territory, and that they disclaimed any intention of making war on the Zulus.

The storm seemed thus to have blown over, and the Boers were cautioned against encroaching on the native tribes; but they did not long remain quiet, and in a short time were at war with another powerful chief Sikukuni, which ultimately led to the annexation of the Republic of the Transvaal to the government of Natal.

Trouble still continued between the border residents and the Zulus. Sir Bartle Frere sent Cetshwayo his ultimatum, stating, "1st. That he had broken his coronation promises, by putting people to death without trial, and permitting indiscriminate shedding of blood; and he was required to give guarantees to the Great Council of the Zulu nation and the British government for the future observance of these promises. 2d. As a guarantee for this he was required to abolish his present military system of tribal quotas, which should be approved of by the Great Council and the British government. 3d. He was to accept the presence and advice of a British Resident. 4th. To

permit the return to Zululand, and engage for the future protection of missionaries and their converts. Lastly, a demand was made for the surrender of certain criminals, and the payment of certain fines, and thirty days was given for an answer."

The time having expired, and Cetchwayo showing no signs of yielding, Sir Bartle Frere, on January 4, 1879, placed the matter in the hands of Lord Chelmsford, the Commander-in-chief of the forces in South Africa.

The news which reached England, on February 11th, of the terrible disaster at Isandula, was a shock for which the nation was totally unprepared; were the victorious Zulus, it was asked, likely to overrun Natal? Could the troops still in the colony hold their own till re-enforcements from England could reach them? The 24th Regiment had been entirely annihilated at Isandula, by being surrounded by a body of twenty thousand Zulus. But the gallant defence of Rorke's Drift, by a handful of men under Lieutenants Chard and Bromhead, went far to reassure public feeling on these points, and also to intensify a very general impression that some one must have blundered before such a disaster could have fallen British arms.

Re-enforcements were immediately sent to the Cape, and in time the military prestige was restored. Lord Chelmsford continued on the defensive until re-enforced, and the victory of Ulinda, where the Zulus were completely beaten, decided the war. The Zulus disbanded their regiments, and the king with a few followers took shelter in one of his inaccessible kraals. Meantime Sir Garnet Wolseley arrived at Natal and took command, Lord Chelmsford returning to England.

After a time Cetchwayo was hunted down, taken prisoner, and sent to the Cape, where he now remains. In time the country was entirely pacified, and Sir Garnet Wolseley returned to England.

The troops were advancing on Afghanistan, two brigades of General Browne's column were camped at Jellalabad, the second column under General Roberts had captured the Perwar Pass and retired to winter in the Koorum Valley. General Stewart, with the Quettah column, was making his way slowly but without opposition to Candahar; all fighting in pitched battles was

at an end, and only attacks made by the hill tribes upon scattered detachments and convoys. There was some curiosity to know what Yakooob Khan would do, but there was no anticipation that he would be able to offer a serious resistance, and his submission was daily expected.

Parliament met on February 13, 1879, two days after the arrival of the news of the disaster of Isandula. The subject of the war occupied the first place in the ministerial statement.

On March 25th in the House of Lords, and on the 27th in the Commons, a resolution was moved :

“That this House, while willing to support her Majesty’s government in all necessary measures for defending the possessions of her Majesty in South Africa, regrets that an ultimatum, which was calculated to produce immediate war, should have been presented to the Zulu king without authority from the responsible advisers of the crown, and that an offensive war should have been commenced without imperative and pressing necessity or adequate preparation ; and the House regrets that after the censure passed upon the High Commissioner by her Majesty’s government, in the despatch of March 19, 1879, the conduct of affairs in South Africa should be retained in his hand.” The debate continued several nights, but the motion was lost in both Houses, and Sir Bartle Frere was retained in office.

The Duke of Connaught and Strathearn, the queen’s third son, was married, March 13th, at Windsor Castle, to the Princess Louise Marguerite of Prussia. The queen shortly after departed for Italy, and arrived at Baveno on the Lago Maggiore March 28th, and returned to England April 25th.

The Ameer Yakooob Khan arrived in the British camp at Gaudamak, and was received in state by Major Cavagnari May 8th, and on the 19th an announcement was made in both Houses of Parliament that a peace had been agreed to with that prince ; by it a British Resident is appointed to Cabul, whose safety and honorable treatment the Ameer guarantees.

On May 16th, a debate concerning the general Eastern policy of the government was originated by the Duke of Argyll. He went back to the position of Turkey four years before, when

disturbances first began in Herzegovina, and invited the House to consider how that position had been affected by four years of negotiation and war. He ridiculed the pretensions of the government that they had effected their declared purpose to retain against the Treaty of San Stefano something substantial of the Turkish Empire, and to resist, as far as they could, any substantial gains to Russia.

The Treaty of Berlin was nothing but the Treaty of San Stefano, with a few comparatively unimportant modifications.

The first result of the policy of the government, he maintained, was, "that Turkey was gone—gone for ever." "Do not," he said, "deceive yourselves with fine phrases, Turkey, as an empire, is dead and gone; she has lost more than provinces—she has lost that which is essential to empire: she has lost her independence."

The list of measures enumerated in the ministerial statements made at the commencement of the session, in lieu of the queen's speech, was not of a startling kind. Thirteen bills, altogether, were announced, the first of which was the Army Discipline and Regulation Bill, designed to consolidate and amend the mutiny act and the articles of war; the consolidation of the criminal law; the amendment of the law of bankruptcy, and of the law relating to the summary jurisdiction of magistrates; provision for the expiry of the powers of the railway commissioners; the establishment of county boards; the amendment of the grand jury law of Ireland; the improvement of the system of valuation; and the amendment of the Poor Law of Scotland.

The following were the estimates for the ensuing year: expenditure, £81,153,573; revenue, £83,055,000, the estimated charge for the army being £15,645,000, and the number of men one hundred and thirty-six thousand. The total estimates for the navy was £10,600,000, with a force of fifty-eight thousand men and six thousand boys. During the last ten years two hundred thousand tons of shipping had been built for the navy, half of which had been iron-clads. On August 15th Parliament was prorogued by commission.

In the queen's speech allusion was made to the execution of the Treaty of Berlin, the happy termination of the Afghan and

South African wars, and the passing of the several bills before enumerated.

Toward the end of August public attention was arrested by symptoms of a revival of trade, which was directly connected with one of the causes of agricultural depression: the enormous importation of food from America. Telegrams announced a great improvement in the iron trade of America, but for some time the news was received with some skepticism. It was doubted whether the revival was healthy, but in September the evidences of reviving prosperity in America were too great to be resisted, this revival making itself felt at first doubtfully. In the north of England orders for pig-iron were received at Middlesborough, and there was a brisk demand for iron and steel rails at Sheffield. The slumbering furnaces were put in full blast and closed mills were re-opened—the fact could no longer be doubted.

Still the symptoms of prosperity were at best so faint, that when Lord Beaconsfield, at the Lord Mayor's banquet, November 10th, congratulated the country upon it, the chief signs of its existence upon which he relied was the marked increase in the production of chemicals. Later in the year there was a great deal of comment among financial writers on the fact that, with all the signs of reviving prosperity in trade, there was still such abundance of loanable capital and no advance in the price of money. The purchases made by American merchants in England, however, were very far from being equal in amount to their enormous sales.

In the course of eight weeks following August 1st no less than £12,000,000 in gold was received at the port of New York.

News reached London, September 6, 1879, of the revolt of the Afghan troops, and of the murder of Sir Louis Cavagnari and the whole British mission, on the 3d instant, at Cabul. The British officers included Mr. Jynkins, secretary to the mission, Lieutenant Hamilton, V. C., in command of the troops, and Dr. Kelly, of the Guides' Corps. The march of the troops was immediately countermanded, and Cabul was again occupied by the British, under General Roberts. A court of inquiry and a court-martial were formed; the ringleaders were tried, found

guilty, and executed, and documents being found implicating the Ameer, he was removed to India to be under the surveillance of the government there.

The London *Times*, in its leader of January 1, 1880, writes : "It would be rash to make sure that the beginning of 1880 is a turning-point in our affairs. We leave behind us in 1879, a year which has combined more circumstances of misfortune and depression than any within general experience. There have, indeed, been moments of intense anxiety in the course of the national life during the past thirty years, but the combination of untoward influences during 1879 has been unique. They have eclipsed, perhaps unduly, the satisfactory progress of some important interests, but they have not the less been painfully persistent. We have been forced into two peculiarly ingrateful wars, in two continents, and, though ultimately successful, we have in each case encountered a lamentable disaster. A British force was annihilated in South Africa, and a British embassy massacred in Afghanistan, and many lives, of which the loss has been keenly felt at home, have been sacrificed in repairing these misfortunes.

"The strain, moreover, has had to be borne with diminished resources and energy. Commerce, till lately, has been stagnant, and an almost constant ungeniality in the weather has been equally depressing to our own vital forces and to those of nature at large.

"Agriculture has suffered from an adversity so severe as to impose a heavy burden upon all classes connected with the land, from the highest to the lowest.

"Under this manifold strain the weak points of our financial organization have been revealed, and the failure of several banks has materially aggravated the general disturbance.

"Amidst the general sense of depression party spirit in politics has displayed a bitterness which the most experienced politicians confess to exceed anything within their remembrance, and an eloquent voice has at length raised the passionate cry that the ministry of the day must be thrown overboard to appease the political and financial tempest. This is the exaggeration of panic ; but it is true that we have, in most respects, been pass-

ing through an unusually hard time, and that there prevails an anxious craving for some decisive turn in the current of public affairs.

“The new year happily opens amid circumstances which, in several respects, justify an expectation that this favorable change has actually commenced. Trade, though yet far from having recovered its former vigor, has at least ceased to be stagnant. The weather, if not agreeable, is at least not unseasonable, and the farmers may, at any rate, indulge hopes of a better time.”

A terrible disaster occurred on Christmas night—the destruction of the Tay railroad bridge—while a train was passing over the centre span, and every soul perished.

Parliament was opened February 5, 1880, by the queen, the first time in three years. In the speech from the throne she said:

“It is with much satisfaction that I again resort to the advice and assistance of my Parliament.

“My relations with all foreign powers continue to be friendly. The course of events since the prorogation of Parliament has tended to furnish additional security to the maintenance of European peace on the principles laid down by the Treaty of Berlin.

“Much, however, still remains to be done to repair the discord with which the late war has affected many parts of the Turkish Empire.

“A convention for the suppression of the slave-trade has been concluded between my government and that of his Imperial Majesty the Sultan.

“At the close of your last session I expressed my hope that the treaty of Gandamak had happily terminated the war in Afghanistan. In conformity with its provisions, my envoy, with his retinue, was honorably received and entertained by the Ameer at Cabul. While engaged, however, in the exercise of their duty, and in those connected with the embassy, they were treacherously attacked by overwhelming numbers, and, after a heroic defence, were almost all massacred. An outrage so intolerable called for condign chastisement, and my troops, which, pursuant to the stipulations of the treaty, either had withdrawn

or were withdrawing from the territory governed by the Ameer, were ordered to retrace their steps. The skill exhibited in the rapid march upon Cabul, and in the advances upon the other lines of action, reflects the highest credit upon the officers and men of my British and native forces, whose bravery has shone with its wonted lustre in every collision with the enemy.

“The abdication of the Ameer and the unsettled condition of the country, render the recall of my troops impossible for the present; but the principle on which my government has hitherto acted remains unchanged, and while determined to make the frontiers of my Indian Empire strong, I desire to be in friendly relations alike with those who may rule in Afghanistan and with the people of that country.

“My anticipations as to the early establishment of peace in South Africa have been fulfilled. The capture and deposition of the Zulu king, and the breaking up of military organization on which his dynasty was based, has relieved my possessions in that part of the world from a danger which has seriously impeded their advancement and consolidation. In Bechuanaland a native outbreak of considerable importance has been effectually quelled by my colonial forces, while the Transvaal has been freed from the depredations of a powerful chief, who, having successfully resisted the former government of the country, had persistently rejected our attempts at conciliation. I have reason to hope that the time is now approaching when an important advance may be made toward the establishment of a union or confederation, under which the power of self-government, already enjoyed by the inhabitants of the Cape Colony, may be extended to my subjects in other parts of South Africa.

“The commission which, at the close of the session, I informed you I had issued to inquire into the cause of agricultural depression throughout the United Kingdom, is pursuing its labors.

“In the meantime the serious deficiency in the usual crops in some parts of Ireland has rendered necessary special precautions on the part of my government to guard against the calamities with which those districts were threatened.

“With this view they called upon the authorities charged with the duty of administering relief to make ample prepara-

tions for the distribution of food and fuel, should such a step become necessary, and they have also stimulated the employment of labor by advances, on terms more liberal than those prescribed by the existing law.

"I feel assured that you will give your sanction to the course which has been adopted, when it may have exceeded the power entrusted by Parliament to the executive government.

"A proposal will be submitted to you for providing the funds required for these exceptional advances on the security of the property administered by the Church Temporalities Commissioners."

On the debate on the address to the queen's speech there was some opposition by the Irish members, but it was carried by a vote of two hundred and sixteen to sixty-six.

A bill was brought forward by the Chancellor of the Exchequer to render valid certain proceedings taken for the relief of distress in Ireland, and to make further provision for such relief, and for other purposes.

A dispatch was received from Cape Town, dated February 11th, which stated: "The Cape Parliament meets on May 7th. The premier announces that the government intends submitting proposals for railway extension, and a conference of delegates of all the South African colonies in confederation. The colonial financial position is sound, and a surplus expected."

Parliament was prorogued March 24, 1880, by commission, the Lord Chancellor reading the speech from the throne, which said:

"As the time assigned by law for the termination of the present Parliament is near at hand, I am induced, by considerations of public policy and convenience, to select this period of the session for releasing you from your legislative duties, with a view to an immediate dissolution, and the issue of writs for a general election.

"I cannot part from you without expressing my deep sense of the zeal and ability which, during six years, you have consistently displayed in exercising your important functions, nor without tendering to you my warm acknowledgments for the useful measures which you have submitted for my acceptance,

and especially for the manner in which you have upheld a policy, the object of which was at once to defend my empire and to secure the general peace.

“My relations with foreign powers are friendly and favorable to the maintenance of tranquillity in Europe.

“I entertain the confident hope that the measures adopted in Afghanistan will lead to a speedy settlement of that country.

“I have much satisfaction in assenting to the acts you have passed for the relief of distress unhappily prevalent in parts of Ireland; and trusting that these measures will be accepted by my Irish subjects as a proof of the ready sympathy of the Imperial Parliament, I look forward with confidence to the restored prosperity of their country.

“I rejoice to observe the indications of a general improvement in trade, and that the commercial depression which I have had to lament seems to be passing away.

“I have witnessed with the greatest sympathy the heavy losses sustained by the various classes connected with the cultivation of the soil, and have viewed with admiration the patience and high spirit with which they have contended against an almost unprecedented series of disastrous seasons.

“The electors of the United Kingdom will be called upon forthwith to choose their representatives in Parliament, and I fervently pray that the blessing of Almighty God may guide them to promote the object of my constant solicitude—the happiness of my people.”

The following day Parliament was dissolved by proclamation. Owing to the shortness of the session very little business was consummated outside the measures passed for the relief of the distressed in Ireland, but was left for the new parliament to finish.

The queen paid a short visit to the continent, and owing to the result of the elections giving a large gain to the Liberal party, by the advice of her ministers she returned sooner than she intended, arriving in London April 18th.

The elections being completed it was now possible to measure the extent of the Liberal gains. As the result the House of Commons received a considerably greater infusion of new mem-

bers than it did in either of the preceding general elections held since the passing of the reform bill of 1867. In 1868 two hundred and twenty-eight new members were returned, and in 1874 two hundred and twelve. The number this year was two hundred and thirty-six, of whom about two-thirds were Liberals and Home Rulers; and the parties stand, Liberals, three hundred and fifty-four, Conservatives, two hundred and thirty-seven, and Home Rulers, sixty-three.

A greater amount of political activity had also been shown than during either of the preceding years. In 1868 the number of uncontested seats was two hundred and eleven, and in 1874 one hundred and eighty-one; this year it had fallen to seventy-six. Proof of this increased political activity is also afforded by a comparison of the total number of votes polled by the opposing parties throughout the United Kingdom this year and in 1874, allowances being made for an increase, since 1874, of eleven per cent. in the number of electors on the register.

The total number of Conservative votes recorded in 1874 was 1,222,265; in 1880, 1,418,442.

The total number of Liberal votes recorded in 1874 was 1,436,215; in 1880, 1,882,847.

REGISTERED ELECTORS.

England and Wales.

1880.		1874.
903,658.....	Counties.....	823,364
1,247,324.....	Provincial boroughs.....	1,124,242
337,553.....	Metropolitan “.....	285,503
13,141.....	Universities.....	11,999
2,501,676		2,245,108

Scotland.

94,695.....	Counties.....	82,807
198,883.....	Boroughs.....	187,991
11,936.....	Universities.....	9,510
305,514		280,308

Ireland.

170,698.....	Counties.....	172,009
57,290.....	Boroughs	49,860
3,548.....	Universities.....	1,700
231,536		223,569

On analyzing the gross vote some curious results appear. No less than thirty-seven Liberal gains were determined by a gross majority of one thousand seven hundred and forty-two votes, an average of forty-seven each; and in eight of these cases the scale was turned in favor of the Liberal candidates by ten votes or under. In one constituency—that of South Norfolk—the Liberal candidate owed his seat to one vote alone.

The queen returned to Windsor Castle from the continent on the evening of April 18th. The following morning Lord Beaconsfield waited upon her Majesty, and in an audience tendered his resignation of office. On the 21st the Marquis of Hartington was summoned to Windsor, but did not go without first communicating with Earl Granville. On his return in the afternoon he had an interview with Mr. Gladstone and other political friends. The following day he returned to Windsor, accompanied by Earl Granville. Both had audience, and submitted to her Majesty their conviction that Mr. Gladstone alone could successfully preside over a Liberal ministry.

On their return to town Mr. Gladstone was sent for by the queen and instructed to form a cabinet.

On April 30, 1880, the following appointments were made:

First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Gladstone; Lord Chancellor, Lord Selborne; President of the Council, Earl Spencer; Secretary for Foreign Affairs, Earl Granville; Secretary for India, the Marquis of Hartington; Secretary Home Department, Sir Vernon Harcourt; Secretary of the Colonies, Earl of Kimberley; Secretary at War, Right Honorable H. C. E. Childers; First Lord of the Admiralty, Earl of Northbrook; Chief Secretary for Ireland, Right Honorable W. E. Forster; Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, Right Honorable John Bright; President Local Govern-

ment Board, Mr. Dodson. The foregoing constituted the Cabinet.

Earl Cowper was made Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; the Marquis of Ripon Viceroy of India.

The *London Gazette* of April 19th contained the following notice:

“The queen has been pleased to direct letters patent to be passed under the Great Seal of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, ordering and declaring that the borough of Liverpool, in the county of Lancaster, shall be a city, and shall be called and styled ‘the city of Liverpool,’ in the county of Lancaster, and also appointing the Rev. Charles Ryle, M.A., Dean designate of Salisbury, to the newly founded bishopric of said city.”

The new parliament met on April 29, 1880. Mr. Brand was re-elected Speaker.

The following day, in the House of Lords, the Lord Chancellor, in the name of the royal commissioners, informed Mr. Brand that they had it in command from her Majesty to approve the choice of the Commons.

The Speaker then laid claim to the ancient and undoubted rights and privileges of the Commons, which were all allowed and agreed to.

The Speaker then returned to the House of Commons, and informed the House that her Majesty approved of their choice, and had allowed the claims he had made on their behalf for their ancient privileges. The swearing in of the members was then proceeded with.

The royal commission, in her Majesty's name, announced to Parliament that, in order to afford an opportunity for the issue of new writs for supplying vacancies in the House of Commons, created by the acceptance of office from the crown by some members of the House, there would be a suitable recess, after which the two Houses would proceed to the consideration of such matters as would then be laid before them.

Mr. Hall was returned for Oxford University instead of Sir Vernon Harcourt, the late member.

The new parliament was formally opened by commission May

20, 1880. The queen's speech was read by the Lord Chancellor, as follows :

" I avail myself of the earliest opportunity of meeting you after the general election and the arrangements required upon a change of administration.

" The cordial relations which I hold with all other powers of Europe will, I trust, enable me to promote, in concert with them, the early and complete fulfilment of the treaty of Berlin with respect to effectual reforms, and equal laws in Turkey, as well as to such territorial questions as have not yet been settled in conformity with the provisions of that treaty. I regard such a fulfilment as essential for the avoidance of further complications in the East.

" In accordance with this view I have deemed it expedient to despatch an ambassador extraordinary to the court of the Sultan.

" On the last occasion of my addressing you I expressed my hope that the measures adopted in Afghanistan would lead to a speedy settlement of that country. Since that period the gallantry of my troops has continued to be conspicuous, and the labors of my government in India have been unremitting. But I have to lament that the end in view has not yet been attained. My efforts will, however, be unceasingly directed toward the pacification of Afghanistan, and toward the establishment of such institutions as may be found best fitted to secure the independence of its people, and to restore their friendly relations with my Indian empire.

" The condition of Indian finances, as it has recently been made known to me, has required my special attention. I have directed that you shall be supplied with the fullest information upon this weighty subject.

" I invite your careful notice to the important question of policy connected with the future of South Africa. I have continued to commend to the favorable consideration of the authorities and of the people of the various settlements the project of confederation.

" In maintaining my supremacy over the Transvaal, with its diversified population, I desire both to make provision for the

security of the indigenous races, and to extend to the European settlers institutions based on large and liberal principles of self-government.

"I notice with satisfaction that the imports and exports of the country, as well as other signs, indicate some revival of trade. But the depression which has lately been perceived in the revenue continues without abatement. The estimates of income which were laid before the last Parliament were framed with moderation, but the time which has since elapsed exhibits no promise that they will be exceeded.

"The annual estimates of charge, so far as they have not been already voted, will be promptly laid before you.

"The late season of the year at which you commence your labors will, I fear, seriously abridge the time available for useful legislation ; but I make no doubt that you will studiously turn it to the best account.

"The peace preservation act of Ireland expires June 1st. You will not be asked to renew it. My desire to avoid the evils of exceptional legislation in abridgment of liberty would not induce me to forego in any degree the performance of the first duty of every government in providing for the security of life and property. But while determined to fulfil this sacred obligation, I am persuaded that the loyalty and good sense of my Irish subjects will justify me in relying on the provisions of the ordinary law, firmly administered, for the maintenance of peace and order.

"The provisions enacted before the dissolution of the late parliament for the mitigation of the distress in Ireland have been serviceable for that important end. The question of the sufficiency of the advances already authorized by Parliament is under my consideration.

"A measure at an early day will be submitted to you for putting an end to the controversies which have arisen in respect to burials in churchyards and cemeteries.

"It will be necessary to ask you to renew the act for secret voting.

"Among the chief subjects which will be brought before your notice, as time may permit, will be a bill for giving more effect-

ual protection to the occupiers of land against injury from ground game, for determining on a just principle the liabilities of employers for accidents sustained by workingmen, and for the extension of the borough franchise in Ireland."

The affairs in Afghanistan are for the present at a stand-still, so far as the word can be applied to the military occupation of a turbulent country. Policy and prudence alike forbid the troops to move beyond their present position, and the season will soon be too far advanced for them to undertake the march to India, even if the present condition of the country warranted their doing so. The only thing to be done in the circumstances, therefore, is to strive for a speedy and stable settlement of the country, so as to enable the army of occupation to return as soon as possible.

The *London Times* says, in its issue of 31st of May: "This is the turning-point of the year. The prospects of agriculture just now are neither decisive nor uniform. The weather so far has been favorable, but many parts of England are suffering for the want of rain."

At this point we close this abridged history. Parliament, so far, has been occupied with Irish matters and the admission of Mr. Bradlaugh, an atheist, into Parliament, he refusing to take the oath prescribed by law, because it contains the words, "so help me God."

England is at peace with all the world, except in relation to the occupancy of Afghanistan, which, it is hoped, will soon be settled.

ENGLAND AND WALES IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

English Miles.

20 10 0 20 40 60 80

NORTH SEA
OR
GERMAN
OCEAN

IRISH SEA

ST GEORGE'S CHANNEL

CARDIGAN BAY

BRISTOL CHANNEL

SOMERSET

ENGLISH CHANNEL

Strait of Dover

FRANCE

Alderney
Guernsey
Jersey

Newman & Co. London. Lith. 534 Pearl St. N.Y.



ENGLAND OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

ENGLAND, including Wales, the most populous, wealthy, and important portion of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, comprises the most southerly, the largest, and the most favored part of the Island of Great Britain.

It is bounded on the north by Scotland, east by the German Ocean, south by the Straits of Dover and the English Channel, southwest by the Atlantic Ocean, and west by the St. George's Channel and Irish Sea.

It is situated between latitude $49^{\circ} 57' 30''$ north, and longitude $1^{\circ} 46'$ east, and $5^{\circ} 41'$ west. The greatest length north and south is 425 miles, and its greatest breadth 280 miles. Its seacoast, if measured from one headland to another, is about 1,200 miles; if the principal indentations are followed, about 2,000 miles. The area amounts to 58,320 square miles, of which 7,397 belong to Wales.

Taken by themselves, England and Wales are more densely populated than any other European country, except Belgium.

The population in 1871, the last official census, was 22,704,108; estimated in 1874 at 23,648,609; and in 1880 at 24,750,000 souls.

The country is divided into forty counties for England and twelve for Wales.

ENGLAND.

Bedford.
Berks.
Buckingham.
Cambridge.
Chester.
Cornwall.

Cumberland.
Derby.
Devon.
Dorset.
Durham.
Essex.

Gloucester.
Hants.
Hereford.
Hertford.
Huntingdon.
Kent.

Lancaster.	Nottingham.	Sussex.
Leicester.	Oxford.	Warwick.
Lincoln.	Rutland.	Westmoreland.
Middlesex.	Salop.	Wilts.
Monmouth.	Somerset.	Worcester.
Norfolk.	Stafford.	York, N. E.
Northampton.	Suffolk.	“ N. W.
Northumberland.	Surrey.	“ S. W.

WALES.

Anglesea.	Carnarvon.	Merioneth.
Brecon.	Denby.	Montgomery.
Cardigan.	Flint.	Pembroke.
Carmarthen.	Glamorgan.	Radnor.

The counties are variously subdivided into hundreds, wards, lathes, rapes, titliths, wapentakes, etc.

The principal arms of the sea are: on the east, the estuary of the Humber, the Wash, and the Thames; on the south, Southampton Water; and on the west, the Bristol Channel and the estuaries of the Dee, Mersey, Morecomb Bay, and Solway Frith, dividing the northwest limit of the country from Scotland. The chief capes are: on the east, Flamborough Head, Spurn Head, the Naze, and the North Foreland; on the south, Dungeness, Beachy Head, the Bill of Portland, and Start and Lizard Points; on the west, Hartland Point and St. Bees Head.

The islands are: Holy Island, Lundy, Isle of Man, Sheppy, Walney, the Isle of Wight, and the Scilly Isles.

The most considerable rivers are the Thames, Severn, Medway, Trent, Ouse, Tyne, Tees, Wear, Mersey, Dee, Avon, Eden, and Derwent.

Its mountains are the Cross Fell, 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, and the Peak, in North Derbyshire, rising 1,800 feet, in the Cambrian group; the Sea Fell, the loftiest mountain in England, 3,166 feet, with the Helvellyn and Skiddaw, both about 3,000 feet. The Devonian Range includes the hills of Cornwall, Devon, and part of Somersetshire. These are not nearly so lofty as the others. The mountains in Wales are: Snowden, 3,571 feet; Arthur's Seat, 2,900 feet; Plenlimmon, 2,700 feet; and the Black Forest Range.

The principal lakes are Windermere, Ulleswater, and Derwentwater.

England combines within itself all that is most desirable in scenery, with all that is most necessary for the subsistence of man.

Although its features are molded in a comparatively minute scale, they are marked with all the agreeable interchange which constitute picturesque beauty.

Few countries possess a smaller proportion of land absolutely sterile and incapable of culture. The richest parts are, in general, the midland and southern counties. Toward the north the soil partakes of the barrenness of the neighboring portion of Scotland, and the east coast, in many parts, is sandy and marshy.

A range of moor and elevated land extends from the borders of Scotland to the very heart of the land, forming a natural division from the east and west sides of the kingdom. Cornwall and Wales are also rough and hilly, and the latter, next to Scotland, the most mountainous in the British Islands.

The Political Institutions and Government of Great Britain.

THE government of Great Britain and Ireland is that of a so-called constitutional monarchy. The sovereign represents the executive, whilst the legislature is exercised by the Imperial Parliament.

The "Act of Settlement" settles the succession of the crown upon the descendants of Sophia of Brunswick, and no change in the act can be made except by consent of Parliament.

The heir apparent since Edward III. assumes the title of Prince of Wales.

The civil list granted to the queen amounts to £363,760 a year, in addition to which she enjoys the revenue of the Duchy of Lancaster, amounting to £37,000 a year. The members of the royal family receive annuities amounting to £132,000, and the Prince of Wales in addition has the revenues of the Duchy of Cornwall, amounting to £63,000 per annum.

The royal palaces are Buckingham, St. James's, Kensington,

Windsor Castle, Hampton Court, Kew, Frogmore, Bushy Park, Claremont, Richmond Park, Greenwich, and Holyrood House in Scotland. The private residences of the queen are Osborne, Isle of Wight, and Balmoral, Scotland.

Parliament consists of the sovereign, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons, and no act obtains the force of law until it has been passed by all three.

The House of Lords is hereditary, and numbers five hundred and eight members, including two archbishops and twenty-four bishops of the Established Church of England. More than two-thirds of the peerage are of recent creation; only fourteen go back to the fifteenth century.

The Lord Chancellor presides over the sessions of the House of Lords.

The House of Commons consists of six hundred and fifty-four members, four hundred and eighty-seven for England and Wales, sixty-two for Scotland, and one hundred and five for Ireland. Of these three hundred and sixty are the representatives of three hundred and fifty-five boroughs; two hundred and eighty-three represent the counties, and eleven the universities. In boroughs the right of voting is restricted to householders and to lodgers paying a rent of £20 a year; in counties to householders paying £10 rent.

Members of Parliament are not paid for their services, nor are they able to compensate themselves by any exercise of patronage, as all government appointments in England are made for life, except a few connected with the Cabinet, who change with the government of the day.

The sovereign appoints the members of the Privy Council, the Lord Mayor of London being the only *ex-officio* member, but public business in reality is conducted by a Cabinet Council, whose members are likewise appointed by the sovereign, and who are of the ruling party in, and responsible to the House of Commons. Their appointment is consequently virtually made by the party enjoying the majority in that House.

The members of the Cabinet are: the First Lord of the Treasury (generally Premier); the Lord High Chancellor (the highest legal official and President of the House of Lords); the

Chancellor of the Exchequer, who has charge of the financial affairs; and Secretaries of State for the Home Department, India, the Colonies, Foreign Affairs, War, and the Admiralty; the President of the Council, Lord Privy Seal, Postmaster-General, President of the Board of Trade, and Chairman of the Duchy of Lancaster. There are likewise, but generally without seats in the Cabinet, President of the Local Government and Chief Secretary for Ireland.

The legal advisers of the crown are the Attorney- and Solicitor-Generals, both of whom go out on a change of ministry.

In Ireland the crown is represented by a Lord Lieutenant; in India by a Viceroy.

The administration of justice may be classed in two great divisions of common law and equity.

The former comprises the Court of Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer, and the Courts of Probate, Divorce and Matrimonial Causes; the latter includes those of the Lord Chancellor, the Lords Justices of Appeal, the Master of Rolls, and three Vice-Chancellors, and the Court of Appeal in Chancery of the County Palatine of Lancaster.

The new Judicature Act of 1874 combines these courts into a High Court of Justice, from which an appeal lies to a newly constituted "Court of Appeal."

The House of Lords and the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council retain their appellate jurisdiction as regards Scotch, Irish, Colonial, Ecclesiastical, and Admiralty cases. In addition to the foregoing there are courts of bankruptcy, three ecclesiastical courts, the Lord Mayor's court, the sheriff's courts, and sixty county courts.

The number of judges in the supreme courts, including the Lord Chancellor and the Lord Chief Justice of England, is about forty-six, including Masters in Chancery.

The inferior jurisdiction is carried on by Justices of the Peace in petty and quarter sessions, and by stipendiary magistrates in the larger towns.

In Scotland the Court of Session is the highest court for civil, and the Court of Justiciary for criminal cases. The Irish courts resemble those of England, and there is in addition a

Landed Estates Court. The sessions of the Justices of the Peace are presided over by a salaried barrister.

The number of salaried judges throughout the United Kingdom is about four hundred and sixty, they are appointed for life, and in most cases by the Lord Chancellor.

THE POLICE FORCE in England and Wales number twenty-nine thousand, in Ireland, twelve thousand, and in Scotland three thousand two hundred men. They are maintained by the local authorities, excepting that of London (except the city police), which depends upon the Secretary for the Home Department.

The Established Church of England.

THIS Episcopal institution is governed by two archbishops and twenty-nine bishops: the archbishops and twenty-four bishops have seats in the House of Peers. A large proportion of the Episcopal property is managed by commissioners who pay fixed incomes to the prelates, ranging from £15,000 to the Archbishop of Canterbury, to £2,000, which last is the income of the Bishop of Sodor and Man, who, however, is not a peer of Parliament. The inferior dignitaries of the Church are the deans, archdeacons, canons, and rural deans. The number of benefices is over thirteen thousand, and the clergy of every class number about twenty-three thousand.

The Army.

THERE is a law which renders service in the militia compulsory, but this law is at present in abeyance, and the whole of the military forces of the United Kingdom are at present recruited by voluntary enlistment. The forces include the following categories:

A regular standing army (exclusive of the Indian army) consisting of men who enlist for at least three years, the strength of which, as voted by Parliament, in 1880, is one hundred and thirty-six thousand men.

The militia, which is trained annually during four weeks, is

recruited by enlistment, and numbers one hundred and thirty-seven thousand five hundred and fifty-six men.

The army reserve force and enrolled pensioners, consisting of old soldiers, are trained annually twelve to twenty days, and number forty-six thousand men.

The yeomanry cavalry, numbering two hundred and eighty-four officers and fourteen thousand three hundred and thirty men.

The volunteer corps, consisting of artillery, light horse, engineers, mounted rifles, and infantry, and number one hundred and ninety-four thousand one hundred and ninety-one men.

The army is administered by a secretary at war, who is a cabinet officer, and generally a civilian, and the executive by a general commanding-in-chief, which is not a political office.

The staff of general officers on the active list, 1880, consists of four field-marsbals, one hundred and nine generals, one hundred and forty-four lieutenant-generals, and two hundred and forty-two major-generals.

The present strength of the army is :

CAVALRY.

2 regiments	Life Guards, 1 regiment Royal Horse Guards.
7	“ Dragoon Guards, 1st to 7th.
3	“ Dragoons, 1st, 2d, 6th.
13	“ Hussars, 3d, 4th, 7th, 8th, 10th, 11th, 13th, 14th, 15th, 18th, 19th, 20th, 21st.
5	“ Lancers, 5th, 9th, 12th, 16th, 17th.

THE ROYAL REGIMENT OF ARTILLERY.

5 brigades	of horse artillery.
24	“ of garrison and field artillery.

CORPS OF ROYAL ENGINEERS.

40 companies and 3 troops.

FOOT GUARDS.

3 battalions Grenadiers ; 2 Coldstreams, and 2 Scots Guards.

INFANTRY.

111 regiments of infantry of 142 battalions, viz.:

84 single battalion regiments, 26th to 59th, and 61st to 109th.
 25 two “ “ 1st to 25th, and
 2 four “ “ 60th Rifles, and Rifle Brigade, and
 2 West India, 1 Ceylon, and 1 Royal Malta regiments. And
 the Commissariat, Ordnance Store, Control, and Land
 Transport Departments.

The Royal Navy.

THE navy is administered by a secretary of the Admiralty, who is a member of the Cabinet and generally a civilian. He is also First Lord of the Admiralty. The executive is performed by a commission for executing the office of Lord High Admiral of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, consisting of three sea and two civil lords commissioners. The present incumbents are Lord Northbrook, First Lord; Admiral Sir Astley Cooper Kay, Vice-Admiral Lord John Hay, Rear Admiral A. H. Hoskins, and Mr. Brassey, M.P. They change with the government.

The staff of the navy on the active list, 1880, is six admirals of the fleet, eighteen admirals, nineteen vice-admirals, and thirty-one rear admirals.

The number of seamen voted by Parliament for the naval service, 1880-81, was fifty-eight thousand men and five thousand three hundred boys.

The number of ships in commission April, 1880, was fifty-four iron-clads, one hundred and thirteen steamships, and thirty-two sailing ships, viz.:

Iron-Clads.

<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Guns.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Horse-power.</i>
18 of 8,000 tons and over.....	231	174,450	128,460
27 “ 3,000 to 8,000 tons, each....	273	147,500	100,850
9 “ 3,000 and under, each.....	52	15,200	6,800

Steamships.

<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Guns.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Horse-power.</i>
34 over 2,000 tons, each.....	398	132,700	99,300
79 under 2,000 tons, each.....	360	68,540	74,630

Sailing Ships.

32 sailing ships.....	339	85,600	
199	1,653	623,990	410,040

The royal marines consist of one general, one lieutenant-general, one major-general; and sixteen companies marine artillery, two generals, two lieutenant-generals, five major-generals; and eighty-four companies marine light infantry.

The British Orders of Knighthood.*The Most Noble Order of the Garter:*

K. G.

The Order of the Garter was instituted by King Edward III., in the year 1348.

It consists of the Sovereign and twenty-five Knights Companions, together with such lineal descendants of King George I. as may be elected, always excepting the Prince of Wales, who is a constituent part of the original institution. Special statutes have since, at different times, been promulgated for the admission of foreign sovereigns.

The ribbon of the order is garter blue; the motto: *Honi soit qui mal y pense.*

The Most Ancient and Most Noble Order of the Thistle:

K. T.

The Order of the Thistle was revived by King James II., in the year 1687, and re-established by Queen Anne in 1703.

It consists of the Sovereign and sixteen Knights, besides members of the royal family.

The ribbon of the order is green; the motto: *Nemo me impune lacessit.*

The Most Illustrious Order of St. Patrick:

K. P.

The Order of St. Patrick was instituted by King George III., February 5, 1783.

It consists of the Sovereign, a Grand Master, and twenty-two Knights, besides the members of the royal family who may be elected. The Lord Lieutenant of Ireland for the time being acts as Grand Master.

The ribbon of the order is sky blue; the motto: *Quis separabit?*

The Most Noble Order of the Bath.

Instituted in 1399. Revived in 1725. Enlarged in 1847 and 1858.

Consisting of the Sovereign, First and Principal Grand Cross, and Great Master, and three classes.

The first class to consist of Knights Grand Cross:

G. C. B.

Second class, Knights Commanders:

K. C. B.

Third class, Companions:

C. B.

The ribbon of the order, crimson; the motto: *Tria juncta in uno.*

After passing the grade of Companion the Knights are entitled to the rank of Sir.

The Most Excellent Order of the Star of India.

Instituted by Her Majesty Queen Victoria, February 23, 1861. Enlarged 1876. Consists of

The Sovereign.

Grand Master, the Viceroy of India.

First class, Knights Grand Commanders:

G. C. S. I.

Second class, Knights Commanders:

K. C. S. I.

Third class, Companions :

C. S. I.

Rank like and after the Bath. Ribbon of the order, light blue, white stripe toward the edge. Motto : Heaven's light our guide.

The Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George.

Instituted April 27, 1818. Enlarged 1868 and 1877.

The Sovereign.

Grand Master, the Duke of Cambridge.

First class, Knights Grand Cross :

G. C. M. G.

Second class, Knights Commanders :

K. C. M. G.

Third class, Companions :

C. M. G.

Rank next and like the former. Ribbon of the order, Saxon blue, scarlet stripe. Motto : Auspiciis melioris ævi.

The Order of the Empire of India.

Instituted by Her Majesty Queen Victoria, Empress of India, January 1, 1878.

The Sovereign.

Grand Master, the Viceroy of India, and Companions.

C. E. I.

The Royal Order of Victoria and Albert.

The Sovereign and three classes for ladies.

The Imperial Order of the Crown of India.

For ladies. To commemorate the assumption of Her Majesty's imperial title.

The Victoria Cross.

V. C.

This decoration was instituted in 1856 for the purpose of rewarding individual acts of bravery performed by the officers in the lower grades in the naval and military services, or by war-

rant and petty officers, seamen, and marines in the navy, and non-commissioned officers and soldiers in the army. Every additional act of bravery is recorded by a bar—attached to a blue ribbon for the navy, and a scarlet ribbon for the army—by which the cross is suspended.

A pension of ten pounds per annum is bestowed upon the non-commissioned and petty officers and men who receive the cross, and five pounds a year with each bar.

THE RELATIVE PRECEDENCE

OF THE PEERAGE OF

ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, GREAT BRITAIN, IRELAND, AND THE
UNITED KINGDOM.

ALL Peers of Scotland shall be Peers of Great Britain, and have rank next after the Peers of a like degree in England at the time of the Union.

The Lords of Parliament on the part of Ireland shall have the same privilege as the Lords on the part of Great Britain, and shall have rank next after the Peers of the like rank in Great Britain at the time of the Union. And all Peerages of Great Britain and Ireland shall in all other respects enjoy the same privileges, except those depending upon sitting in the House of Lords.

There are sixteen Representative Peers for Scotland, elected by their own body at every general election, to sit in the House of Lords by act of the Union.

There are twenty-eight Representative Peers for Ireland, elected by their own body for life to sit in the House of Lords, according to act of the Union. Vacancies filled as they occur.

Peers according to Precedence.—Princes of the Blood.

Style: His Royal Highness. Address: Sir, or, more formally, your Royal Highness.

	Creation.
Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, Duke of Cornwall.....	1841
Alfred Ernest Albert, Duke of Edinburgh.....	1866
Arthur William Patrick, Duke of Connaught and Strathearn.....	1874
George William Frederick Charles, Duke of Cambridge.....	1801
Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland.....	1799

Archbishops.

Style: The Most Reverend His Grace the Lord Archbishop.
Addressed as, My Lord Archbishop, or, Your Grace.

	Appointed.
Dr. Archibald C. Tait, Archbishop of Canterbury.....	1868
Dr. William Thomson, Archbishop of York.....	1863

Dukes.

Style: Most Noble His Grace. Address: My Lord Duke,
or, Your Grace.

NOTE.—The eldest sons of Dukes, Marquises, and Earls take, by courtesy, their father's second title. The other sons and daughters of Dukes and Marquises are styled Lord William and Lady Mary, as the case may be. The younger sons and daughters of Earls are styled Honorables, as well as sons and daughters of Viscounts and Barons.

Scotch Peers are marked *S*.

Irish Peers are marked *I*.

Representative Peers of Parliament are marked *R*.

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Titles.</i>	<i>Creation.</i>	<i>Eldest Sons or Heirs.</i>
Henry Fitzalan-Howard.....	NORFOLK.....	1483	Earl of Arundel and Surrey.
Edwd. A. Seymour.....	SOMERSET.....	1547	Earl St. Maur.
Chas. A. Gordon-Lennox.....	RICHMOND AND GORDON.....	1675	Earl of March.
Wm. H. Fitzroy.....	GRAFTON.....	1675	" Enston.
Hy. C. Fitzroy Somerset.....	BEAUFORT.....	1682	Marquis of Worcester.
Wm. A. de Vere Beauclerk.....	ST. ALBANS.....	1684	Earl Burford.
George G. Osborne.....	LEEDS.....	1694	Marquis of Carmarthen.
Francis C. H. Russell.....	BEDFORD.....	1694	" Tavistock.
Wm. Cavendish.....	DEVONSHIRE.....	1694	" Hartington.
Jno. W. S. Churchill.....	MARLBOROUGH.....	1702	" Blandford.
Chas. C. J. Manners.....	RUTLAND.....	1703	" Granby.
Wm. Hamilton-Douglas.....	BRANDON. HAMILTON.....	1711	" Douglas.
S., Walter F. Douglas-Scott.....	BUCCLEUCH.....	1663	Earl of Dalkeith.
S., Geo. D. G. Campbell.....	ARGYLL.....	1701	Marquis of Lorne.
S., Jno. J. H. Murray.....	ATHOLE.....	1703	" Tullibardine.
S., Douglas B. R. Graham.....	MONTROSE.....	1707	" Graham.
S., James H. J. R. Ker.....	ROXBURGH.....	1707	" Bowmont.
Wm. J. Scott-Bentinck.....	PORTLAND.....	1716	" Titchfield.
Wm. Drogo Montagu.....	MANCHESTER.....	1719	Viscount Mandeville.
Hy. P. Pelham-Clinton.....	NEWCASTLE.....	1716	Earl of Lincoln.
Algernon G. Percy.....	NORTHUMBERLAND.....	1766	Earl Percy.
L. Chs. W. Fitzgerald.....	LEINSTER.....	1761	Marquis of Kildare.
Arthur R. Wellesley.....	WELLINGTON.....	1814	" Douro.
R. Plantagenet Chandos-Grenville.....	BUCKINGHAM AND CHANDOS.....	1832	" Chandos.
G. G. S. Leveson-Gower.....	SUTHERLAND..... [DOS.]	1833	" Stafford.
Henry Geo. Powlett.....	CLEVELAND.....	1833	Earl of Darlington.
I. James Hamilton.....	ALBANY.....	1868	Marquis of Hamilton.
Hugh L. Grosvenor.....	WESTMINSTER.....	1874	Earl Grosvenor.

Marquises.

Style: The Most Honorable the Marquis of. Address: My Lord Marquis.

<i>Name.</i>	<i>Titles.</i>	<i>Creation.</i>	<i>Eldest Sons or Heirs.</i>
John Paulett.....	WINCHESTER.....	1551	Earl of Wiltshire.
S., Charles Gordon.....	HUNTLEY.....	1549	" Aboyne.
S., John Sholto Douglas.....	QUEENSBERRY.....	1682	Viscount Drumlaurig.
S., Wm. Montagu Hay.....	TWEEDDALE.....	1694	Earl of Gifford.
Hy. C. K. P. Fitzmaurice.....	LANDSOWNE.....	1781	" Kerry.
Jno. V. S. Townshend.....	TOWNSHEND.....	1788	Viscount Raynham.
S., Schomberg H. Kerr.....	LOTHIAN.....	1701	Earl of Ancrum.
Robt. A. T. Gascoyne-Cecil.....	SALISBURY.....	1789	Viscount Cranbourne.
John A. Thynne.....	BATH.....	1789	" Weymouth.
Francis H. J. Seymour.....	HERTFORD.....	1793	Earl of Yarmouth.
Jno. P. Crichton-Stuart.....	BUTE.....	1796	" Windsor.
I., Jno. H. de La Poer Beresford.....	WATERFORD.....	1789	" Tyrone.
I., Arthur Trumbull Hill.....	DOWNSHIRE.....	1789	" Hillsborough.
I., Geo. H. Chichester.....	DONEGAL.....	1791	" Belfast.
I., Henry F. S. Moore.....	DROGHEDA.....	1791	Viscount Moore.
I., Thomas Talour.....	HEADFORT.....	1800	Earl of Beective.
I., George Jno. Browne.....	SLIGO.....	1800	" Altamont.
I., Jno. H. W. G. Loftus.....	ELY.....	1800	Viscount Loftus.
William A. Cecil.....	EXETER.....	1801	Lord Burghley.
Chas. D. Compton.....	NORTHAMPTON.....	1812	Earl Compton.
Jno. Chas. Pratt.....	CAMDEN.....	1812	Earl of Brecknock.
Henry W. G. Paget.....	ANGLESEY.....	1815	" Uxbridge.
Wm. H. H. Cholmondeley.....	CHOLMONDELEY.....	1815	" Rocksavage.
Geo. H. Vane Tempest.....	LONDONDERRY.....	1816	Viscount Castlereagh.
I., Geo. H. Conyngham.....	CONYNGHAM.....	1816	Earl of Mount Charles.
Geo. W. B. Bruce.....	AILESBUURY.....	1821	Earl Bruce.
I., James E. T. Butler.....	ORMONDE.....	1825	Earl of Ossory.
I., Hubert De B. Canning.....	CLANRICARDE.....	1825	Viscount Burke.
Fred. W. J. Hervey.....	BRISTOL.....	1826	Earl Jernyn.
Archibald Kennedy.....	AILSA.....	1831	Earl of Cassillis.
Geo. A. C. Phipps.....	NORMANBY.....	1838	" Mulgrave.
Geo. F. S. Robinson.....	RIPON.....	1871	Earl de Grey.
William Neville.....	ABERGAVENNY.....	1876	Earl of Lewes.

Earls.

Style: Right Honorable. Addressed: My Lord.

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Titles.</i>	<i>Creation.</i>	<i>Eldest Sons or Heirs.</i>
Chas. J. C. Talbot.....	SHREWSBURY.....	1412	Viscount Ingestre.
Edwd. Hy. Stanley.....	DERBY.....	1485	Lord Stanley.
Francis P. P. Hastings.....	HUNTINGDON.....	1529	" Hastings.
Geo. R. C. Herbert.....	PEMBROKE.....	1551	" Herbert.
Wm. R. Courtney.....	DEVON.....	1553	" Courtney.
Henry C. Howard.....	SUFFOLK.....	1693	Viscount Andover.
Rudolf W. B. Fielding.....	DENBIGH.....	1622	" Fielding.
Francis W. M. Fane.....	WESTMORELAND.....	1624	Lord Burghersh.
S., James Sinclair.....	CAITHNESS.....	1455	" Berriedale.
S., Henrietta A. Leslie.....	ROTHES (Countess).....	1458	" Leslie.
S., Sholto J. W. Douglas (R.).....	MORTON.....	1458	" Aberdour.
S., David S. Erskine.....	BUCHAN.....	1469	" Cardross.
S., Archd. Wm. Montgomery.....	EGLINTON.....	1507	" Montgomery.

Earls—(Continued.)

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Titles.</i>	<i>Creation.</i>	<i>Eldest Sons or Heirs.</i>
S., Geo. Stuart.....	MORAY.....	1562	Lord Doune.
S., Walter H. Erskine (R.).....	MAR and KELLIE.....	1562	" Erskine.
S., Co-patrick A. Home.....	HOME.....	1604	" Douglas.
S., George Drummond.....	PERTH and MELFORT.....	1605	Viscount Forth.
S., Claude Lyon-Bowes (R.).....	SIRATHMORE.....	1606	Lord Glamis.
S., Geo. Bailie-Alden-Hamilton (R.).....	HADDINGTON.....	1619	" Banning.
S., Alan Plantagenet Stewart.....	GALLOWAY.....	1623	" Garlies.
S., Thomas Maitland.....	LAUDERDALE.....	1624	Viscount Maitland.
S., George Hay.....	KINNOUL.....	1623	" Dupplin.
S., Chas. E. H. Abney-Hastings.....	LOUDOUN.....	1623	" Manchline.
S., Victor A. Bruce.....	ELGIN.....	1623	Lord Bruce.
S., James Carnagie.....	SOUTHESK.....	1623	" Carnagie.
S., Fran. W.-C. Douglas.....	WEMYSS.....	1623	" Elcho.
S., George Ramsay.....	DALHOUSIE.....	1623	" Ramsay.
Geo. A. F. A. Bertie.....	LINDSEY.....	1626	" Bertie.
George Harry Gray.....	STAMFORD.....	1628	" Gray of Groby.
Geo. J. Finch-Hatton.....	WINCHELSEA.....	1628	Viscount Maidstone.
Geo. P. Stanhope.....	CHESTERFIELD.....	1628	Lord Stanhope.
Jno. Wm. Montague.....	SANDWICH.....	1629	Viscount Hinchinbroke.
Arthur Algernon Capel.....	ESSEX.....	1661	" Maldon.
Rev. Wm. G. Howard.....	CARLISLE.....	1661	" Morpeth.
Anthony Ashley Cooper.....	SHAFTESBURY.....	1662	Lord Ashley.
Montague Bertie.....	ABINGDON.....	1682	" Norreys.
Rich'd Geo. Lumley.....	SCARBOROUGH.....	1690	Viscount Lumley.
Geo. Tho. Keppel.....	ALBEMARLE.....	1695	" Bury.
Geo. Wm. Coventry.....	COVENTRY.....	1697	" Deaehurst.
Victor A. G. C. Villiers.....	JERSEY.....	1697	" Villiers.
Wm. H. Poulett.....	POULETT.....	1706	" Hinton.
S., Alex. W. C. Lindsay.....	CRAWFORD.....	1708	Lord Lindsay.
S., William Harry Hay.....	ERROLL.....	1752	" Kilmarnock.
S., Sigismund G. Blandin.....	NEWBOROUGH.....	1660	" Livingstone.
S., Thos. Barnes Cochrane (R.).....	DUNDONALD.....	1669	" Cochrane.
S., Franc. A. Keith-Falconer.....	KINTORE.....	1677	" Inverurie.
S., David G. D. Ogilvy (R.).....	AIRLIE.....	1629	" Ogilvy.
S., Harry B. Dalzell.....	CARNWATH.....	1629	" Dalzell.
S., Alex. Leslie Melville (R.).....	LEVEN and MELVILLE.....	1641	Viscount Kirkcaldy.
S., Wm. J. M. Tollenachie.....	DYSART.....	1642	Lord Huntingtower.
S., Dunbar J. Douglas (R.).....	SELKIRK.....	1646	" Dacr.
S., Geo. J. Carnagie.....	NORTESK.....	1647	" Rosehill.
S., Gavan Campbell.....	BREADALBANE.....	1681	" Ormelie.
S., John Hamilton Gordon.....	ABERDEEN.....	1682	" Haddo.
S., Chas. A. Murray.....	DUNMORE.....	1686	Viscount Fincastle.
S., Geo. Wm. H. Fitzmaurice.....	ORKNEY.....	1688	" Kirkwall.
S., Jno. C. Grant Ogilvie.....	SEAFIELD.....	1701	" Reidhaven.
S., Jno. Hamilton Dalrymple.....	STAR.....	1707	" Dalrymple.
S., Archibald P. Primrose.....	ROSEBERY.....	1703	Lord Dalmeiney.
S., Geo. Frederick Boyle.....	GLASGOW.....	1703	Viscount Kelbourne.
S., Jno. Adam Louis Hope.....	HOPETOWN.....	1711	Lord Hope.
Sewallis Ed. Shirley.....	FERRERS.....	1711	Viscount Tanworth.
William W. Legge.....	DARTMOUTH.....	1711	" Lewisham.
Charles Bennett.....	TANKERVILLE.....	1714	Lord Ossulston.
Henage Finch.....	AYLESFORD.....	1714	" Guernsey.
Franc. T. de Gray Cowper.....	COWPER.....	1718	Viscount Fordwich.
Arthur P. Stanhope.....	STANHOPE.....	1718	" Mahon.
Thos. A. W. Parker.....	MACCLESFIELD.....	1721	" Parker.
Wm. Fred. Waldegrave.....	WALDEGRAVE.....	1729	" Cnewton.
Bortram Ashburnham.....	ASHBURNHAM.....	1730	" St. Asaph.
Chas. Windam Stanhope.....	HARRINGTON.....	1742	" Petersham.
Isaac Newton Wallop.....	PORTSMOUTH.....	1743	" Lynington.
Geo. Gny Greville.....	BROOKE, WARWICK.....	1746	Lord Brooke.
Rev. Augt. C. Hobart.....	BUCKINGHAMSHIRE.....	1746	" Hobart.
Wm. T. S. Wentworth-Fitzwilliam.....	FITZWILLIAM.....	1746	Viscount Milton.
Dudley Franc. North.....	GUILFORD.....	1752	Lord North.
Chas. Philip Yorke.....	HARDWICK.....	1754	Viscount Royston.
Henry C. Fox-Strangway.....	ILCHESTER.....	1756	Lord Stavordale.
Rev. Reg'd W. Sackville.....	DE LA WARR.....	1761	Viscount Cantilupe.

Earls—(Continued.)

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Titles.</i>	<i>Creation.</i>	<i>Eldest Sons or Heirs.</i>
Jacob Pleydell-Bouverie.....	RADNOR.....	1765	Viscount Folkestone.
Jno. Poyntz Spencer.....	SPENCER.....	1765	" Althorpe.
Wm. Lennox Bathurst.....	BATHURST.....	1772	Lord Apsley.
Edw'd Hyde Villiers.....	CLARENDON.....	1776	" Hyde.
Wm. David Murray.....	MANSFIELD.....	1776	Viscount Stormont.
Wm. Henry Edgcombe.....	MOUNT EDGCOMBE.....	1779	" Vallefert.
Hugh Fortescue.....	FORTESCUE.....	1789	" Ebrington.
Henry H. M. Herbert.....	CARNARVON.....	1793	Lord Portchester.
Geo. Henry Cadogan.....	CADOGAN.....	1800	Viscount Chelsea.
Jas. Howard Harris.....	MALMESBURY.....	1800	" Fitzharris.
I., Rich'd E. St. L. Boyle.....	CORK.....	1620	" Dungarvan.
I., Wm. St. George Nugent.....	WESTMEATH.....	1621	Lord Delvin.
I., William Brabazon.....	MEATH.....	1627	" Brabazon.
I., Arthur Jas. Plunkett.....	FINGALL.....	1628	" Killeen.
I., Fred. J. W. Lambert.....	CAYAN.....	1647	Viscount Kilcourseie.
I., Geo. A. Hastings Forbes.....	GRANARD.....	1684	" Forbes.
I., John Stuart Bligh.....	DARNLEY.....	1725	Lord Clifton.
I., Chas. George Perceval.....	EGMONT.....	1733	Viscount Perceval.
I., Jno. G. Brabazon Ponsonby.....	BESSBOROUGH.....	1759	" Duncannon.
I., Somerset A. Butler.....	CARRICK.....	1749	" Ikerin.
I., Henry Bentie Boyle.....	SHANNON.....	1756	" Boyle.
S., James Duff.....	FIFE.....	1759	" Macduff.
I., Philip Yorke Gore.....	ARRAN.....	1762	Lord Sudley.
I., Jas Geo. H. Stopford.....	COURTOWN.....	1762	Viscount Stopford.
I., Edw'd N. Leeson.....	MILLTOWN.....	1763	" Russborough.
I., Jas. Molyneux Canfield.....	CHARLEMONT.....	1763	" Caulfield.
I., John Vansittart Butler (R.).....	LANESBOROUGH.....	1763	Lord Newton Butler.
J., Edward Tournour.....	WINTERTON.....	1766	Viscount Tournour.
I., Wm. H. T. St. Lawrence.....	HOWTH.....	1767	" St. Lawrence.
I., Henry E. N. King.....	KINGSTON.....	1768	" Kingsborough.
I., Wm. Philip Molyneux.....	SEFTON.....	1771	" Molyneux.
I., Robert Jocelyn.....	RODEN.....	1771	" Jocelyn.
I., Ernest A. Vaughan.....	LISBURN.....	1776	Lord Vaughan.
I., Richard Meade.....	CLANWILLIAM.....	1776	" Gilford.
I., Stephen Moore (R.).....	MOUNT CASHEL.....	1781	" Kilworth.
I., Wm. R. Macdonnell.....	ANTRIM.....	1785	Viscount Dunine.
I., Wm. L. Packenham.....	LONGFORD.....	1785	Lord Packenham.
I., Hy J. Dawson-Damer (R.).....	PORTARLINGTON.....	1785	Viscount Carlow.
I., Dermont R. Bourke.....	MAYO.....	1785	" Mayo.
I., Hugh Annesley (R.).....	ANNESLEY.....	1789	" Glerawly.
I., Wm. W. Cole.....	ENNISKILLEN.....	1789	" Cole.
I., John Crichton (R.).....	ERNE.....	1789	" Crichton.
I., Wm. Proby.....	CARYSFORT.....	1789	Lord Carysfort.
I., Wm. W. O'C. Cuffe.....	DESART.....	1793	Viscount Desart.
I., Chas. F. A. Howard (R.).....	WICKLOW.....	1793	Lord Clonmore.
I., Jno. H. R. Scott (R.).....	CLONMELL.....	1793	" Earlsfort.
I., Wm. Sidney Clements.....	LEITRIM.....	1795	Viscount Clements.
I., Geo. Chas. Bingham (R.).....	LUCAN.....	1795	Lord Bingham.
I., Somerset Lowry-Curry (R.).....	BELMORE.....	1797	Viscount Corry.
I., Francis Bernard.....	BANDON.....	1800	" Bernard.
I., Henry J. S. Richardson.....	CASTLESTEWART.....	1800	" Stewart.
I., Jno. L. G. Hely-Hutchinson.....	DONOUGHMORE.....	1800	" Suirdale.
I., James Alexander (R.).....	CALEDON.....	1800	" Caledon.
I., Valentine A. Browne.....	KENMARE.....	1800	" Castlecross.
Franc. R. St. C. Erskine.....	ROSSLYN.....	1801	Lord Loughborough.
Geo. G. Craven.....	CRAVEN.....	1801	Viscount Uffington.
Wm. H. Onslow.....	ON-SLOW.....	1801	" Cranley.
Charles Mar-sham.....	ROMNEY.....	1801	" Mar-sham.
Henry T. Pelham.....	CHICHESTER.....	1811	Lord Pelham.
Thomas Egerton.....	WILTON.....	1801	Viscount Grey de Wilton.
I., Wm. H. C. Pery.....	LIMERICK.....	1803	Lord Glentworth.
I., Rich'd S. Le-Poer-Trench.....	CLANCARTY.....	1803	Viscount Duno.
Edw'd J. Herbert.....	POWIS.....	1804	" Clive.
Horatio Nelson.....	NELSON.....	1805	" Trafalgar.
I., Archibald B. Acheson.....	GOSFORD.....	1806	" Acheson.
I., Jas. C. H. Ellis-Agar.....	NORMANTON.....	1806	" Sommerton.

Earls—(Continued.)

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Titles.</i>	<i>Creation.</i>	<i>Eldest Sons or Heirs.</i>
J. Lawrence Parsons (R.)	ROSSE	1806	Lord Oxmantown.
Sydney W. H. Pierrepont	MANVERS	1806	Viscount Newark.
Horatio Walpole	ORFORD	1806	Lord Walpole.
Henry Grey	GREY	1806	Viscount Howick.
St. Geo. Henry Lowther	LONSDALE	1807	" Lowther.
Dudley Ryder	HARROWBY	1809	" Sandon.
H'y Thynne Lascelles	HAREWOOD	1812	" Lascelles.
Wm. H. E. Kynmynould	MINTO	1813	" Melgund.
Allan F. Cathcart	CATHCART	1814	Lord Greenock.
Jas. W. Grimston	VERULAM	1815	Viscount Grimston.
Adelbert W. B. Cust	BROWNLOW	1815	" Allford.
Ed. Granville Eliot	ST. GERMAINS	1815	Lord Eliot.
Albert E. Parker	MORLEY	1815	Viscount Boringdon.
Orlando G. C. Bridgeman	BRADFORD	1815	" Newport.
Frederick Lygon	BEAUCHAMP	1815	" Elmley.
L. Wm. H. H. White (R.)	BANTRY	1816	" Berchaven.
I. Henry N. Holroyd	SHEFFIELD	1816	" Pevensy.
John Scott	ELDON	1821	" Encombe.
Rich'd W. Curzon-Howe	HOWE	1821	" Curzon.
Chas. S. Somers-Cocks	SOMERS	1821	" Eastnor.
John E. C. Roys	STRADBROKE	1821	" Danwich.
L. Francis J. Needham	KILMORY	1822	" Newry.
L. W. T. Wyndham-Quin	DUNRAVEN	1822	" Adare.
L. William Hare	L STOWEL	1822	" Ennismore.
Wm. Pitt Amherst	AMHERST	1826	" Holmesdale.
Jno. F. V. Campbell	CAWDOR	1827	" Emlyn.
L. Wm. B. L. Toler	NORBURY	1827	" Glandyne.
Wm. C. FitzClarence	MUNSTER	1831	Lord Tewksbury.
Robt. A. P. Haldane	CAMPERDOWN	1831	Viscount Duncan.
Thos. G. Anson	LICHFIELD	1831	" Anson.
J. Ucter J. M. Knox	RANFURLEY	1831	" Northland.
Geo. T. D'A. Lampton	DURHAM	1831	" Lambton.
G. J. Leveson Gower	GRANVILLE	1833	Lord Leveson.
Henry Howard	EFFINGHAM	1837	" Howard.
Henry J. R. Moreton	LUCIE	1837	" Moreton.
Chas. A. W. Pelham	YARBOROUGH	1837	" Worsley.
Thos. Wm. Coke	LEICESTER	1837	Viscount Coke.
Wm. King-Noel	LOVELACE	1838	" Oakham.
Lawrence Dundas	ZETLAND	1838	Lord Dundas.
Chas. Geo. Noel	GAINSBOROUGH	1841	Viscount Campden.
Francis C. G. Egerton	ELLESMERE	1846	" Brackley.
Geo. Stevens Byng	STRAFFORD	1847	" Enfield.
Wm. John Peppys	COTTENHAM	1850	" Crowhurst.
Henry R. C. Wellesley	COWLEY	1857	" Dangan.
William Ward	DUDLEY	1860	" Ednam.
Jno. F. S. Russell	RUSSELL	1861	" Amberley.
Ann S. L. Gower	CROMARTIE (Countess)	1861	
John Woodhouse	KIMBERLEY	1866	Lord Woodhouse.
Richard Dawson	DARTREY	1866	" Cremorne.
Wm. E. Duncombe	FEVERSHAM	1868	Viscount Helmley.
Fred. Temple-Blackwood	DUFFERIN	1871	" Claudeboy.
Jno. Robt. Townshend	SYDNEY	1874	" Townshend.
Henry Thos. Liddell	RAVENSWORTH	1874	Lord Islington.
E. M. Stuart-Wortley-Mackenzie	WHARNCLIFF	1876	Viscount Carlton.
Thos. Geo. Baring	NORTHBROOK	1876	" Baring.
Jno. Thos. Mitford	REDESDALE	1876	Lord Redesdale.
H. McCalmont Cairns	CAIRNS	1876	" Cairns.
Benjamin Disraeli	BEACONSFIELD	1878	Viscount Hughenden.
Geo. Watson Mills	SONDES	1880	Lord Sondes.
Ed. Bootle-Wilbraham	LATHAM	1880	" Skilmersdale.
Ed. R. L. Bulwer-Lytton	LYTTON	1880	" Lytton.

Viscounts.

Style: Right Honorable. Address: My Lord.

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Titles.</i>	<i>Creation.</i>	<i>Names.</i>	<i>Titles.</i>	<i>Creation.</i>
Robt. Devereaux...	HEREFORD	1549	I. W. C. Yelverton	AVANMORE	1800
S. Wm. Wellerburn...	ARBUTHNOTH	1611	Robt. Dundas	MELVILLE	1802
Henry St. John	BOLINGBROKE	1712	I. Geo. F. Upton (R.)	TEMPLETON	1806
George Byng	TORRINGTON	1721	I. F. de Montmorency	FRANKFORT	1815
I. Jenno W. Preston	GORMANSTOWN	1728	Ed. F. Fellow	EXMOUTH	1816
I. Arthur Annesley	VALENTINE	1621	I. H. S. O'Grady	GULLAMORE	1831
I. Arthur Netterville	NETTERTVILLE	1622	R. Clegg-Hill	HILL	1842
I. Thos. H. Jones	RANELAGH	1628	Geo. S. Gough	GOUGH	1849
I. Hugh R. Dawney	DOWNE	1680	C. S. Letevre	EVERSLEY	1857
I. Rich'd W. Chetwind	CHETWIND	1717	A. N. Hood	BRIDPORT	1868
I. Cust. R. H. Russell	BOYSE	1717	Ed. Cardwell	CARDWELL	1874
S. L. Bentie Cary	FALKLAND	1620	I. Ed. M. Arundell	GARWAY	1874
S. Wm. H. Drummond (R.)	STRAHDALLAN	1626	I. H'y J. Flower	ASHBROOK	1881
Evelyn Bascavan	FALMOUTH	1720	I. A. S. Southwell	SOUTHWELL	1886
Francis W. Hood	HOOD	1726	I. Jas. Hewitt (R.)	LIFFORD	1881
I. H'y Edm. Butler	MOUNT GARRET	1629	I. R'y Agar-Ellis	CLIFDEN	1881
I. Thos. La. Dillon	DILLON	1628	I. J. S. Keomoy	HARBERTON	1891
I. Ed. T. J. Gaiffe	TAFFEE	1628	C. J. Jervois	MOCK	1891
I. Clot. J. Skiffington	MASSERENE	1660	Wm. Auldington	ST. VINCENT	1891
I. Rev. S. Molesworth	MOLESWORTH	1716	I. Geo. O'Callaghan	SIDMOUTH	1895
I. Wm. Broderick	MIDLETON	1717	I. Stan'y Vicker	LISMORE	1895
I. Geo. W. Barrington	BARRINGTON	1720	W. S. Cotton	GOET	1896
I. H'y M. Gage	GAGE	1720	J. Manners-Sutton	COMBERMERE	1897
I. M. Wingfield (R.)	POWERSCOURT	1713	C. H. Harlinge	CANTERBURY	1895
I. Wm. de Montmorency	DE VESCI	1763	S. Canning	HARDINGE	1895
I. John R. Vesey	BANGOR	1781	Chas. Wood	STRAFORD DE RADCLIFF	1852
I. Ed. Ward (R.)	DOSEPALE	1785	Ed. B. Portman	HALIFAX	1866
I. H. St. Leger (R.)	HAWARDEN	1793	Gathrone Hardy	PORTMAN	1873
I. C. Maude (R.)				CRANBROOK	1878

Bishops.

Style: Right Reverend. Address: My Lord.

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Sees.</i>	<i>Appointed.</i>	<i>Names.</i>	<i>Sees.</i>	<i>Appointed.</i>
Dr. John Jackson.....	LONDON.....	1869	Dr. J. Mackarness.....	OXFORD.....	1869
Dr. Joseph Lightfoot.....	DURHAM.....	1879	Dr. R. Durnford.....	CHICHESTER.....	1870
Dr. Ed. H. Browne.....	WINCHESTER.....	1873	Dr. Jas. Woodford.....	ELY.....	1873
Dr. A. Ollivaut.....	ELANDAFF.....	1849	Dr. H'y Philpott.....	Worcester.....	1861
Dr. R. Bickersteth.....	RIPON.....	1856	Dr. Wm. Jacobson.....	CHICHESTER.....	1865
Dr. John Pelham.....	NORWICH.....	1851	Dr. Wm. McGee.....	PETERBOROUGH.....	1868
Dr. Jas. Campbell.....	BANGOR.....	1859	Dr. C. Wordsworth.....	LINCOLN.....	1869
Dr. Chas. Elliott.....	GLoucester AND BRISTOL.....	1863	Dr. Fred. Temple.....	KETER.....	1869
Dr. Jas. Alley.....	HEREFORD.....	1868	Dr. A. C. Harvey.....	BATH AND WELLS.....	1869
Dr. Ed. Benson.....	TEURO.....	1877	Dr. Jas. Frazer.....	MANCHESTER.....	1870
Dr. Geo. Moberley.....	SALISBURY.....	1869	Dr. Jos. Hughes.....	ST. ASAPH.....	1874
Dr. Harvey Goodwin.....	CARLISLE.....	1869	Dr. W. Bazet-Jones.....	ST. DAVID S.....	1874

Barons.

Style: The Right Honorable Lord. Address: My Lord.

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Titles.</i>	<i>Creation.</i>	<i>Names.</i>	<i>Titles.</i>	<i>Creation.</i>
Mary T. Boscawen.....	LE DESPENSER.....	1264	H'y Veney.....	WILLOUGHBY DE BROKE.....	1492
Dudley De Ross.....	DE ROSS.....	1266	Geo. B. Mostyn.....	VAUX OF HARROWDEN.....	1524
Geo. M. Astley.....	HASTINGS.....	1264	Baroness.....	NORTH.....	1554
Thos. Trevor.....	DACRE.....	1321	F. G. Ellis.....	HOWARD DE WALDEN.....	1557
Robt. C. Curzon.....	ZETCHE.....	1308	Wm. B. Petre.....	PETRE.....	1603
H'y Stapleton.....	BEAUMONT.....	1309	Alfred Stourton.....	MOWBRAY.....	1283

Tal. S. Russell.	DE CLIFFORD.	1299	Thos. de Grey.	WALSINGHAM.	1780
Clem. de Emsby.	WILLOUGHBY DE ERSBY.	1313	Wm. Bagot.	BAGOT.	1780
C. Trufus.	CLINTON.	1299	Chas. H. Fitzroy.	SOUTHAMPTON.	1780
Thos. Stoner.	CABOTO.	1284	Thos. B. Norton.	GRANTLEY.	1782
Baroness.	BERNERS.	1415	Geo. B. Rodney.	RODNEY.	1782
S. Lane-Fox.	CONVERS.	1569	Wm. J. C. Elliot.	ELIOT.	1784
John D. Bray.	BRAY.	1521	Wm. Noel-Hill.	PERWICK.	1784
St. A. St. John.	ST. JOHN.	1558	Jas. H. Dutton.	SHERBORNE.	1784
John B. Dornier.	DORMER.	1615	Chas. Harbord.	SUFFIELD.	1786
Rev. F. Fionnes.	SAVE AND SALE.	1603	Dudley W. Carlton.	DORCHESTER.	1786
J. F. Arundel.	ARENDSELL OF WARDOR.	1605	Lloyd Kenyon.	KENYON.	1788
Geo. H. Curzon.	TYNDHAM.	1616	Chas. C. Neville.	BRAYBROOKE.	1788
H. Gerningham.	BYRON.	1640	T. C. Bruce.	THURLOW.	1792
Geo. F. W. Byron.	CLIFFORD OF CHUDLEY.	1643	Wm. G. Eden.	AUCKLAND.	1793
S. Wm. C. Koppel.	ASHFORD.	1652	Chas. G. Lyttelton.	LYTTELTON.	1794
S. Horace C. Forbes (R.).	FORBES.	1652	Fred. H. Cathorne.	CALTHORNE.	1796
S. Alex. Fraser (R.).	SALTOEN.	1440	Peter R. Burrell.	GWYDIER.	1796
S. Al. C. Maxwell.	HERBIER.	1445	Chas. R. Carrington.	GARRINGTON.	1796
S. Jas. St. Clair.	SINCLAIR.	1489	Wm. H. Powlett.	DOLTON.	1797
S. Maria Scuppli.	SEMPILL.	1489	Geo. Rushton.	NORTHWICK.	1797
S. Wm. B. Eplinsdone (R.).	ELPHINSTONE.	1495	Thos. L. Powys.	SILFORD.	1797
S. Simon Fraser.	LOVAT.	1470	John F. De Courcy.	RIBBELSDALE.	1797
S. C. Botherwick (R.).	BOTHERWICK.	1470	Thos. Barmwall.	KINGSALE.	1797
S. J. W. Sandilands.	TORPHICHEN.	1564	I. Thos. F. Plunkitt (R.).	TRIMLESTON.	1797
S. Chas. Stuart (R.).	BLANTYRE.	1606	I. Thos. F. Plunkitt (R.).	DUNSALEY.	1797
S. Chas. J. Colvill (R.).	COLVILLE OF CULROSS.	1609	I. Rond. O. Phunkitt.	DUNROBYSE.	1541
S. Alex. H. Bruce (R.).	HALFOUR OF BURLIGH.	1606	I. Ed. D. O'Brien (R.).	LOUTH.	1541
S. Francis Napier.	NAPIER, ETTRICK.	1627	I. Philip Shorard.	INCUBQUIN.	1543
S. Wm. G. Taylor.	FAIRFAX.	1627	I. Geo. P. Freke.	SHERARD.	1627
S. Donald McKay.	REAY.	1628	I. Gerald G. Aymer.	CABERY.	1715
S. Mont Murray.	ELIDANK.	1613	I. Somers Maxwell.	AYLMER.	1718
S. Jas. Hamilton.	BELHAVEN AND STETSON.	1613	I. John A. Lysight.	FARNDAM.	1756
S. John R. Rollo.	ROLLO AND DENNING.	1671	I. Stenger B. Winn.	LISLE.	1758
S. Walter Rutliven.	RUTHVEN.	1681	I. Rond. A. Macdonald.	NEWBOROUGH.	1756
S. Arthur Kinnaird.	KINSAIRD.	1682	I. Wm. Edwards.	MACDONALD.	1756
S. Walter H. Scott.	POLWARTH.	1690	I. John T. W. Massey (R.).	KENSINGTON.	1756
Hy Willoughby.	MIDDLETON.	1701	I. Hy Montague.	MASSEY.	1756
Wm. J. Monson.	MONSON.	1701	I. Hy Montague.	TOKERY.	1756
Alfred Curzon.	SCARSDALE.	1701	I. Handl D. Morgan.	MUSKERRY.	1751
F. G. H. Fry.	POSTON.	1701	I. Joselyn Pennington.	MUNCASTER.	1783
Alc. H. Vernon.	VERNON.	1702	I. Francis W. Browne.	KILMAINE.	1783
Ed. St. V. Digby.	DIGBY.	1702	I. Valt. Lawless.	CLOSCUTERY.	1783
Rev. H. Hawke.	HAWKE.	1706	I. Robt. Dillon (R.).	CLOSCUTERY.	1783
Hy T. Foley.	FOLEY.	1706	I. Hy A. Cavendish.	WATERPAK.	1792
Rev. F. W. Rice.	DYNEVOE.	1780	I. Clarence E. Graves.	HUNTINGFIELD.	1791
			I. Chas. A. Vaneuk.		1756

Barons—(Continued.)

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Titles.</i>	<i>Creation.</i>	<i>Names.</i>	<i>Titles.</i>	<i>Creation.</i>
I., Derrick Westcra.	ROSSMORE	1796	Geo. Warren	DE TABLE.	1826
I., John Hotham	HOHAM	1797	Chas. S. Abot	TENDERON	1827
I., Charles A. Wm.	HEADLEY	1797	Rev. W. C. Pimket.	PUNKET	1827
I., Charles J. Shore	TEIGNMOUTH	1797	Wm. H. A. Holmes	HEYTSBURY	1828
I., Ed. H. C. Croton (R.)	GEOTON	1797	Wm. D. M. Esq.	WYNSFORD	1829
I., Thomas French	FRENCH	1798	L. James Talbot	TALBOT DE MALAUIDE	1830
I., Anthony Henley	HENLEY	1799	Angl. Bampfield	POLTIMORE	1831
I., Hercules Rowley	LANGFORD	1800	E. Lloyd Mostyn	MOSTYN	1831
I., Wm. De Blaquiere	DE BLAQUIERE	1800	H. S. Chichester	TEMPMORE	1831
I., Bridges Hemiker	HENIKER	1800	John St. V. Samuarez	DE SAUMAREZ	1831
I., Day De Molyens (R.)	VENTRY	1800	Thomas Domm	DENMAN	1831
I., John G. Eingham	WALLSCOURT	1800	L. Robert S. Carew	CAREW	1831
I., Augt. J. H. Blake	DUNALLY	1800	Wm. S. Scarlett	ARINGER	1835
I., Henry Frittle	CLANNOERIS	1800	Philip Sidney	DE LISLE AND DUDLEY	1835
I., John G. Waldegrave	KADSTOCK	1800	Alex. H. Baring	ASHERTON	1835
I., Allan L. Gardner	GARDNER	1800	Ed. R. Littleton	HATLETON	1835
I., Fred. M. Ernech	ASHTOWN	1800	Geo. H. C. Tynng	STRAFFORD	1836
I., Ern. H. Massey	CLERINA	1800	Wm. F. Campbell	ORANMORE AND BROWN	1836
Geo. R. Abercromby	ABERCROMBY	1800	L. Geo. F. Guthrie (R.)	EATMAN	1837
Hogace P. Rivers	RIVERS	1802	W. Bateman Hanbury	DE MANLEY	1838
C. E. Law Tawny	ELLENBOROUGH	1802	Chas. F. A. C. Ponsenby	WROTTSLEY	1838
Angl. P. Al. Sandys	SANDYS	1802	Arthur Wootsley	METHVEN	1838
I., Fred. Theclulson	HENDLESHAM	1806	S. Hanbury Tracey	STANLEY OF ALDERLEY	1839
Thos. A. Erskine	ERKINE	1806	F. H. P. Methuen	LEIGH	1839
Hungerford Crewe	CREWE	1806	Wm. H. Leigh	WENLOCK	1839
J. Manneis Sutton	MANNERS	1807	Wm. R. Lawley	LURGAN	1839
I., Richard Handcock (R.)	CASTLEMAINE	1812	Chas. Browning	MONTEAGLE	1839
I., W. de la P. Borested	DECIES	1812	Thos. Spring-Rice	SEATON	1839
Francis G. Spencer	HARRIS	1815	Jas. Colborne	KEANE	1841
Geo. R. C. Harris	COLCHESTER	1817	Ed. A. W. Keane	VIVIAN	1841
Regd. E. C. Abbott	GARVAGH	1821	Chas. C. Vivian	COSGLETON	1845
I., Chas. J. Cumming	DELAWARE	1821	John V. Parnell	DUNSDALO	1845
Hugh Cholmondeley	FORRESTER	1821	L. St. Geo. Daly (R.)	BELLAW	1848
Geo. Welde-Porter	RAYLEIGH	1821	L. Ed. J. Bellow	LONDSDOROUGH	1850
John W. Strutt	GIFFARD	1824	Wm. H. F. Denison		

Samuel Jones Lloyd.....	OVERSTONE.....	1850	Inke G. White.....	1863	ANNALY.....	1863
Arthur French.....	De FREYNE.....	1851	R. Monkton-Mills.....	1863	HOUGHTON.....	1863
Chas. R. C. Wilde.....	TRURO.....	1850	J. H. G. Sommerville.....	1863	ATHELMEX.....	1863
L. Thos. Fortescue.....	CLERMONT.....	1852	Wm. Romilly.....	1865	ROMILLY.....	1865
Richard H. Somerset.....	St. LEONARDS.....	1852	Ed. H. Jolliffe.....	1866	HYLTON.....	1866
G. D. Willoughby.....	RAGLAN.....	1852	Hugh H. Rose.....	1866	STRATHNAIRN.....	1866
Richard B. P. Lyons.....	AVELAND.....	1856	G. D. Pennant.....	1868	PENRYN.....	1868
Edwd. Strutt.....	BERKELEY.....	1856	John H. Trollope.....	1868	CESTEVEE.....	1868
I., Ed. Fitz E. B. Roche.....	PERMOY.....	1856	John B. Walsh.....	1868	ORMATHWAITE.....	1868
Robt. Grosvenor.....	LEURY.....	1857	Robt. G. Naylor.....	1868	O'NEILL.....	1868
Wm. G. Cavendish.....	CHESHAM.....	1858	Ros. W. O. O'Neill.....	1868	NAPIER OF MAGDALA.....	1868
Fred. Thesiger.....	CHELMSFORD.....	1858	Wm. Rice Wood.....	1868	HATHERLEY.....	1868
John Yardie-Bailev.....	CHURSTON.....	1858	John N. M. Lawrence.....	1869	RATHDONNEL.....	1869
H'y Wyndham.....	LECONSFELD.....	1859	Jas. P. Wilde.....	1869	LAWRENCE.....	1869
Wm. T. Egerton.....	EGERTON.....	1859	Ed. G. F. Howard.....	1869	HOWARD OF GLOSSOP.....	1869
God'y C. Morgan.....	TREDEGAR.....	1859	Jas. Fitzpatrick.....	1869	CASTLETOWN.....	1869
Fitzp. Vernon.....	LYVEDEN.....	1859	Arthur E. Guinness.....	1880	ABDILATN.....	1880
Wm. Brougham.....	BROUGHAM AND VAUX.....	1861	William Watson.....	1880	WATSON.....	1880
Richard L. Bethell.....	WESTBURY.....	1860	A. D. C. Wishart-Ballie.....	1880	LAMINGTON.....	1880
Francis W. Berkeley.....	FITZTHARDINGE.....	1861				

THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

An Abstract of the Area and Population of the British Empire, estimated in 1880.

	Square Miles.	Population.
Great Britain and Ireland.....	121,115	33,500,000
Indian Possessions, etc.....	1,558,254	241,000,000
Other Eastern Possessions.....	30,000	3,200,000
Australasia.....	3,173,310	2,500,000
North America.....	3,620,500	4,000,000
Guiana, etc.....	100,000	200,000
Africa.....	270,000	1,500,000
West Indies, etc.....	12,707	1,140,000
European Possessions.....	120	160,000
Various Settlements.....	96,171	200,000
	8,982,177	287,400,000

The Growth of the National Debt.

The debt of England at the Revolution of 1688	£664,263
“ “ during the reign of William III.....	16,394,702
“ “ “ “ of Queen Anne.....	54,145,366
“ “ on accession of George II., 1727.....	52,092,238
“ “ at commencement of American War.....	128,583,635
“ “ on conclusion of American War, 1784.....	249,851,608
“ “ at commencement of French War, 1793....	239,350,248
“ “ after the peace, February 1, 1817.....	840,850,491
“ “ “ Crimean War, 1857.....	815,953,219
“ “ funded, unfunded, and annuities, 1879	778,128,846
Or about \$3,890,000,000.	

GENEALOGICAL TABLE.

THE HOUSE OF CERDIC.

Cerdic, the ancestor of the kings of England of the Saxon line, founded the kingdom of Wessex, A.D. 495. Cerdic died in 534, and from him Egbert, the first King of England, is descended as follows: 1, Cynric, King of Wessex; 2, Ceawlin; 3, Cuthwine; 4, Cutha; 5, Ceolwald; 6, Cenred; 7, Ingild; 8, Eata; 9, Eoppa; 10, Alkmund, King of Kent, whose son Egbert was elected to succeed Brihtric in the kingdom of Wessex, A.D. 800.

THE DESCENT FROM EGBERT TO QUEEN VICTORIA.

1, Egbert; 2, Ethelwulf; 3, Alfred the Great; 4, Edward the Elder; 5, Edmund; 6, Edgar; 7, Ethelred; 8, Edmund Ironsides; 9, Edward (not a king); 10, Margaret, wife of Malcolm, King of Scotland; 11, Matilda, wife of Henry I.; 12, Matilda (empress), and wife of Geoffrey Plantagenet; 13, Henry II.; 14, John; 15, Henry III.; 16, Edward I.; 17, Edward II.; 18, Edward III.; 19, Lionel, Duke of Clarence; 20, Philippa, married Edward Mortimer, Earl of March; 21, Roger Mortimer, Earl of March; 22, Anne Mortimer; 23, Richard, Duke of York; 24, Edward IV.; 25, Elizabeth; 26, Margaret Tudor, married James IV. of Scotland; 27, James V. of Scotland; 28, Mary, Queen of Scots; 29, James VI. of Scotland, I. of England; 30, Elizabeth, married Frederick, Elector Palatine; 31, Sophia, married Ernest Augustus of Brunswick; 32, George I.; 33, George II.; 34, Frederick, Prince of Wales; 35, George III.; 36, Edward, Duke of Kent; 37, Victoria.

MAY 13 1949

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